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THE

UNITED STATES

OF

AMERICA

A PICTORIAL HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN NATION FROM THE EARLIEST DISCOVERIES AND SETTLEMENTS TO THE PRESENT TIME

4657

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LIFE IN THE COLONIES

BY

GEORGE CARY EGGLESTON.

IF we would understand the history of the Colonial period, beginning with the seventeenth century, we must bear in mind the conditions in which the people of that time lived. These conditions were so different from those of modern life that it is not easy to make due allowance for the difference.

At first there were no horses, no cows, no hogs, no sheep, no goats, no fowls, no farm animals of any kind.

Having no cows, the colonists had no milk, no butter, no cheese, no beef, and no tallow with which to make candles. Having no fowls, they had no eggs. Having no horses or oxen, they brought with them no plows and no vehicles of any kind. There is no indication in the records of that time that the first Virginia colonists had a single hoe, or spade, or mattock.

In brief the first colonists permanently settled in the most productive country in all the world, brought with them absolutely no means of tilling the rich lands upon which they settled; and worse still, these first colonists were utterly ignorant of the art of farming. For three years it did not occur to them to plant fields that would yield them abundant food. They depended upon a company in London to feed them across three thousand miles of tempestuous sea.

The Dutch fur traders, who came next in the order of settlement, had little in mind except to trade with the Indians, but as they had been all their lives accustomed to cultivate gardens at home, they made gardens where the city streets and the great sky-scrapers of New York now are, and they did not starve as the early Virginia colonists did.

The New England colonists began to cultivate the soil almost immediately, but their soil was sterile and their climate hostile. Nevertheless, they grew some corn and other things under tutelage of the Indians, and for the rest they found food in abundance in the seas. The later colonists, in Pennsylvania, the Jerseys, Maryland, and the Carolinas, learned their lesson from the sufferings of Virginia and New England. They provided food for themselves from the first by cultivating the land. Horses, hogs, and cattle had been imported by that time, so that farm industry was profitable.

But it was attended by many difficulties. Farm tools were scarce and clumsy. There were no wheeled vehicles of any kind in any of the colonies until near the end of

the seventeenth century. There were no roads on which to use such vehicles, and no bridges by which to drive them across streams.

At first the water courses constituted the only highways, and so, in all the colonies, settlements were made only along shore. Little by little, trails for pack horses were made further inland, and these trails slowly developed into roads. Then came rude bridges and wheeled vehicles.

During the whole colonial time, and for half a century afterward, there was no such thing as a friction match in all the world. Every family preserved seed fire by covering the burning logs with ashes. If by chance the seed fire went out, boys were sent to borrow a "chunk of fire" from the nearest neighbor—perhaps many miles away. As a last resort there were tinder boxes, with flint and steel.

There was no such thing known in colonial times as that which we now call tinware.

There was no such thing as cotton cloth, because cotton did not become cheap until Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin, near the end of the eighteenth century. Linen was very expensive. As a consequence only the wealthier people of the colonies wore shirts or underclothes of any kind, or had sheets, pillow cases, and table linen.

At first of course nobody had these things, because everybody was poor, but after the colonists learned to cultivate the soil, and found out what crops they could grow to the best advantage, the wiser ones among them slowly became well-to-do, and those who built ships and engaged in foreign commerce grew rich. Moreover, during the eighteenth century there was a considerable influx of wealthy and well-to-do people from England. These brought wealth with them. They built fine houses and indulged in many luxuries that had before been undreamed of in the colonies.

When the early colonists first turned their attention to agriculture, they made many blunders that seem almost incredible now. They did not know the soil or the climate. So they undertook, even in New England, to grow silkworms, olives, madder, oranges, wine, tea, coffee, cocoa, and other purely tropical and sub-tropical products. Failure and great loss followed of course, but little by little the people learned what crops to plant in each of the colonies.

Early in the seventeenth century the Virginians learned that their soil and climate would produce a superior quality of tobacco, and as tobacco had a money value they all set to work to grow it, to the neglect of corn and other food crops. The result was a famine which taught them a lesson.

In the early colonial times the dwellings of the people were of the wretchedest imaginable sort. Often they were mere holes dug in the ground. Sometimes they were bush shelters, and sometimes bark huts. When New York City consisted of thirty houses, all but one of them were mere shanties of bark. Log cabins came later. Later still, as wealth increased, men built fine houses, sometimes of wood laboriously fashioned to its purpose—for there were no sawmills till near the end of the colonial period—and sometimes of brick. Among the Dutch in New York, stone was often used, and some buildings of that kind remain to this day.

But even the finest houses built by the wealthiest colonists, were barn-like struc-

tures, wind-swept, and subject to all manner of freezings in severe weather. There was no means of warming them except by wood fires in great cavernous fireplaces, and these were so ineffective that water would often freeze at a distance of a few feet from the fires.

There were no such things as stoves known anywhere in the world until the eighteenth century, when Benjamin Franklin invented his appliance "for the better heating of rooms." That was simply a cast-iron fireplace to be set in the middle of a room, and connected with the chimney by a stove pipe. It did not let all the heat pass out through the chimney, as the open fireplaces did.

Churches were not heated at all, though sermons were often three hours long, and everybody, even including babes in arms, was required to attend them.

There wasn't a bathroom or a bathtub in all the land. It was not the habit of the people to bathe, except that then as now, boys went in swimming in summer.

Coal had not then come into use as fuel.

Nobody, in colonial times, thought of storing ice in winter for use in summer.

There was no such thing as medical science known. The doctors were mainly ignorant and superstitious men who believed in charms and medical sorceries. There were no medical colleges. If a young man wanted to become a physician, he "rode with a doctor" on his rounds for six months or a year. Then he set up in practice for himself. The public and private records of that time abound in illustrations of the ignorance, the superstition, and the arrant knavery of the pretenders to medical knowledge.

Religious intolerance prevailed in nearly all the colonies. In Massachusetts the government was, in fact, a hierarchy of ministers. In Virginia the English church dominated, and in the other colonies the alliance between church and state was very close and very arbitrary, except that in Rhode Island and Pennsylvania there was a broad liberty of conscience and a marked weakening of purely clerical influence.

No such thing as popular education, as we now understand it, existed. Massachusetts early enacted laws looking to the establishment of common schools, but they were not very effective. In all the colonies, until near the end of the colonial period, it was thought to be quite enough of education for a boy to learn to read, write, and know the four fundamental rules of arithmetic. If a girl could write her own name, do needlework, and make pies, she was deemed accomplished. Pretty nearly everybody in the seventeenth and the first part of the eighteenth century spelled with ingenious incorrectness, while the records made by public officers are positively amusing exhibitions of ignorance.

There were a good many colleges set up during the latter half of the period, but they were mainly for the education of ministers. It was not thought necessary for any one except a preacher to have a college education.

In the South, where the people lived on vast plantations, common schools were impossible because of the distances. But the planters employed tutors for their sons and governesses for their daughters, so that on the whole education was better there than in most of the northern colonies.

Until late in colonial times, there was no such thing as a post-office or a mail service. When at last these were created, postage was enormously high, the mails were infrequent, irregular, slow, and so uncertain that nobody dared depend upon them. In letters written even during the Revolution and since published, we find wives and husbands explaining to each other that the reason they had not written for three or four weeks past was that no traveler had appeared to carry the missives, and that of course nobody in his senses would entrust an important letter to the mails. The result was that persons living a hundred miles apart were, in effect, more distant from each other than the people of Maine now are from their friends in California.

This is but a meager sketch of the life conditions that prevailed among the courageous men and women who endured untold hardships and privations and dangers to establish our country and build it up. It would require many chapters to tell the story fully.

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A PICTORIAL HISTORY

OF

THE UNITED STATES.

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CHAPTER I.

1776. THE CAMPAIGN IN THE SOUTH.

YOU must bear in mind that not only were the patriots forced to combat the British invaders of their country, but that they had enemies at home. These were men who believed it wrong to fight for their independence, and who thought the rule of King George III. the best that the colonies could have.

Many of the Tories were cruel and treacherous, and while their patriotic neighbors were away from home fighting for liberty, injured their property, sometimes burning their houses and shooting the members of their families. When brave enough to face danger they would either join the British invaders or form companies of their own to fight against their fellow-citizens. It is probable that some of the Tories were honest in their belief, but no one can justify their brutalities.

There was a severe conflict in North Carolina between the patriots and Tories, in which the latter were defeated with heavy loss. So completely were the traitors crushed, that for a time it was hard work to find one in that part of our country.

Clinton, Cornwallis and Parker showed no great eagerness to engage in their work. The first named general having reached Wilmington, awaited the arrival of the fleet and re-enforcements. The ships came in one by one, the last arriving on the third of May with Admiral Parker. This delay gave the Continentals good opportunity to prepare themselves for the attack.

Christopher Gadsen was colonel of the first patriot regiment, and William Moultrie commanded the second. There was also a regiment of riflemen, all famous marksmen, while their colonel, William Thompson, was the best shot of all. Tories were plentiful in South Carolina, but they were pretty well scared, and when North Carolina sent a

regiment to her neighbor's help, all danger to the patriots from the rear was removed.

It was easy to see the importance of Charleston. The British General Clinton could do nothing without the help of his fleet, and that fleet was powerless until it had possession of Charleston harbor. The South Carolinians saw this from the first, and did not wait until the danger was upon them before preparing for it. Scarcely was the news of Lexington known when they began fortifying the harbor. They knew their turn would soon come, and they did not mean to be caught napping.

On the north side of the entrance to the harbor lay Sullivan's Island — low, marshy and wooded — while on the south side was James Island, much larger. Gadsen was intrenched on the latter, and Moultrie and Thompson were on Sullivan's Island, which is six miles distant from Charleston. The streets of the town were barricaded and a large force was kept under arms to resist the assault that was sure to come, in case the outer defenses were carried. The most important of these was the fort erected by Moultrie on Sullivan's Island, opposite the place where the channel ran closest to the shore. No vessel could reach Charleston without passing that fort, and as long as the vessels were held at bay, Charleston was safe.

The walls of the fort were made of palmetto logs, and the spaces between filled with sand, so that the walls were over a dozen feet in thickness. The middle of the fort was a swamp. The work was not finished when called upon to resist the tremendous assault of the fleet. The front was completed, and thirty-one guns were mounted on it. There was room for a thousand men, but the garrison numbered only four hundred.

Copies of the royal proclamation, offering pardon to such as would lay down their arms, were sent to the patriots, but of course that work was thrown away. General Lee watched the preparations making by Moultrie and shook his head.

"It is impossible with these defenses to keep back the fleet," he said, with the positiveness of one who was sure he was right. "I do not believe you can hold out half an hour. The fort will be knocked all to pieces."

"Then we'll lie behind the ruins," replied Moultrie, "and keep at it."

"You have no means of retreat," added Lee. "If you are defeated the slaughter will be dreadful."

"We're not going to be defeated, general."

This was brave talk, but it did not quiet the fears of the commanding officer. He was in favor of abandoning the place, or at least of building a bridge of boats from the island to the mainland, but Colonel Moultrie was so urgent that Lee gave him his own way.

Clinton and Cornwallis agreed that the best plan was to land on a sandbank, and then pass to Sullivan's Island by means of a certain ford said to exist at low water. On the 17th of June, twenty-five hundred British disembarked on this patch of sand, only to be tormented by musquitoes, the blazing sun and a lack of good water. It was the worst time of the year for people unused to the flaming skies of the south. And now, when the invaders came to examine the supposed ford, it was found to be fully seven feet deep at low water. It looked as if the only way to get across was for

the soldiers to walk on stilts, to ride on each other's shoulders, or to swim. None of these methods could be adopted, and there was little prospect, therefore, of Clinton giving help to the fleet.

After repeated delays, the attack was opened on the 28th of June, 1776. Parker was confident that he could reduce the fort, and defeat the large body of Continentals encamped on the island in the rear of the fort. The Americans had an advanced post at one extremity of the island, where the men were protected by sand-hills and myrtle-bushes, with breastworks thrown up in the rear, and guarded by a large number of riflemen. On the left was a morass, and on the right a couple of guns commanded the spot where it was expected Clinton would land his men.

About the middle of the forenoon of that hot June day, the British fleet, numbering ten men-of-war, and carrying two hundred and fifty-four guns, sailed up the channel, the *Bristol* flying Admiral Parker's pennant, being third in the line. Over the fort fluttered the flag of South Carolina, blue in color, with a silver crescent and the single word, "Liberty."

The garrison grimly awaited the approach of the ponderous hulls, slowly sweeping forward, with a wealth of bellying canvas above. As they swung one after another into range, Moultrie sent a few cannon balls whistling toward them, but the ships made no reply until they dropped anchor in position before the fort. Then their "thunders shook the mighty deep." Spouts of flame shot from the throats of hundreds of cannon, and tons of metal went hurtling over the water toward the fort. When the smoke cleared away Admiral Parker and his officers expected to see the fortifications splintered and scattered as if by a myriad thunder-bolts. General Lee and a vast crowd, many with glasses, intently watched the result from Charleston.

There was scarcely a sign that the fort had been struck. The palmetto logs were the best material that could have been used. They are spongy and fibrous, and when struck by a cannon ball the wood does not splinter, but seems to absorb the metal. Of course, the heavy balls did some damage, and the sand often flew aloft in showers, but the result was highly pleasing to the Americans, and equally disappointing to the British. Admiral Parker, however, concluded that it would merely take him a little longer than was anticipated to demolish the defenses that disputed his passage to the city.

Most of the shells that curved over into the fort fell into the marsh in the center, where they were quenched by the water and mud, and sputtered out without harming any one. No one could have shown more coolness and bravery than Colonel Moultrie. He smoked his pipe, growled now and then as a twinge of gout shot through his leg, and, limping back and forth, inspired all with his own courage. The weather was excessively hot, and banks of sulphurous vapor almost suffocated the defenders, as they fought half-naked. Their well-aimed shots crashed through the rigging and hulls of the ships with tremendous effect.

Suddenly the flag at the south-east bastion fell to the beach. The flag-staff had been cut in two by a ball from one of the vessels. Sergeant William Jasper bounded through one of the embrasures, seized the ensign, climbed the wall amid a

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THE ATTACK ON SULLIVAN'S ISLAND.

Drawn by Edward de Mausant.

furious fire, waved the flag defiantly at the enemy, and securing it on a pike coolly fixed it in place, and jumped down among his comrades.

The British showed great bravery, but they could not equal the damage inflicted by the American shots, aimed with so much skill. Every body on the quarter-deck of the flag-ship *Bristol* was either killed or wounded, and, for a time, Admiral Parker

SERGEANT JASPER RECOVERS THE FLAG.

was the only one who stood there unhurt. Captain Morris was struck in the neck, and, shortly after, his right arm was shattered by a chain shot. He passed quietly below, had his arm amputated and dressed, after which he returned to the quarter-deck, where he continued to direct the action of the ship, until a shot passed through his body and his voice was hushed forever.

Toward the latter part of the day, the hopes of the assailants were raised by the slackening of the American fire. It looked as if the fleet was about to prevail, and the faces of the spectators in far away Charleston paled with anxiety. But Colonel Moultrie never dreamed of yielding. He filled his pipe again, and sent word to General Lee that his ammunition was low, and that he must have more at once. At that time only enough was left for the musketry, in case the British landed.

Moultrie had asked for ammunition earlier in the day. Now, when he saw how bravely his men were fighting while he hobbled painfully about, it is not strange that he lost patience and used some vigorous language, because his request for a time was unheeded. When he first applied to Lee, the general was not inclined to grant his request, replying that if the ammunition was expended he should spike his guns and retreat. Governor Rutledge, who was in Charleston, forwarded five hundred pounds of powder to Moultrie with the request that he should not be quite so free with his cannon, and two hundred pounds were received from a schooner lying at the back of the fort.

During the afternoon some re-enforcements were sent by Lee with orders to support the advance guard under Thompson, at the east end of the island. A little later, General Lee went over to Moultrie and sighted several of the cannon. Struck with the skill and courage of the patriots, he said with a smile:

"I don't think I am needed here, colonel; I will go back to town and tell the folks how well you are getting along."

Lee took his departure. The day was very long, but when the sun went down, and darkness crept over the harbor and city, the firing still continued. The thousands that were gazing in the direction of the combatants could see only the red flash of the ships' broadsides and the answering crimson jets from the walls of the fort, and could hear after long intervals, the resounding boom of the cannon.

It was nine o'clock when Admiral Parker, who was slightly wounded, decided to withdraw. The ships slipped their cables, and the expedition against Charleston was abandoned. The British had lost two hundred and five men killed and wounded, while of the Americans ten were killed, and twenty-nine wounded. Three of the vessels had grounded on a sand-bank. Two of them were got off during the night, and the third was fired and abandoned by the crew. While she was burning, a number of Americans boarded her, captured her colors, fired some of the guns at Parker's squadron, filled three boats with her sails and stores, and got safely away before she blew up.

Nothing could be more complete than was the triumph of the Americans. The key to the south, as it may be called, had been held against the utmost efforts of the British army and fleet, and that section of our country was safe for the time. General Lee wrote to Washington that he was "enraptured" by the coolness and bravery of the defenders under twelve hours' fire. Had Colonel Moultrie been a young and vain man he would have been ruined by the praises he received. The fort was named for him, his regiment was presented with two beautiful banners, and congratulations poured on him from every quarter. All Charleston flocked to the fort after the

departure of the fleet. General Lee admitted his mistake as to the strength of the defenses. He reviewed the regiment on the 30th of June, the date of the presentation of colors by the ladies of Charleston. Governor Rutledge visited the garrison on the 4th of July, and expressed the gratitude of South Carolina. Congress, at a later date, voted its thanks to Lee, Moultrie and Thompson, and to the officers and soldiers under their command. Governor Rutledge offered Sergeant Jasper a sword and a lieutenant's commission, but he modestly declined the latter. Although South Carolina was somewhat slow at the beginning in entering upon the struggle for independence, yet none of the states was more ardent than she when the time for fighting came. She hesitated at no sacrifice or risk, and her brave sons stood shoulder to shoulder in battle with the patriots of New England and the Middle States. The defense of Charleston was one of the most gallant achievements of the Revolution. You can readily see that the victory was far-reaching in its results, for while it inspirited the colonies from one end of the country to the other, it gave the British a most striking example of the bravery and determination of the people that were fighting for liberty. It was evident that no single victory and no single army was sufficient to conquer the Americans.

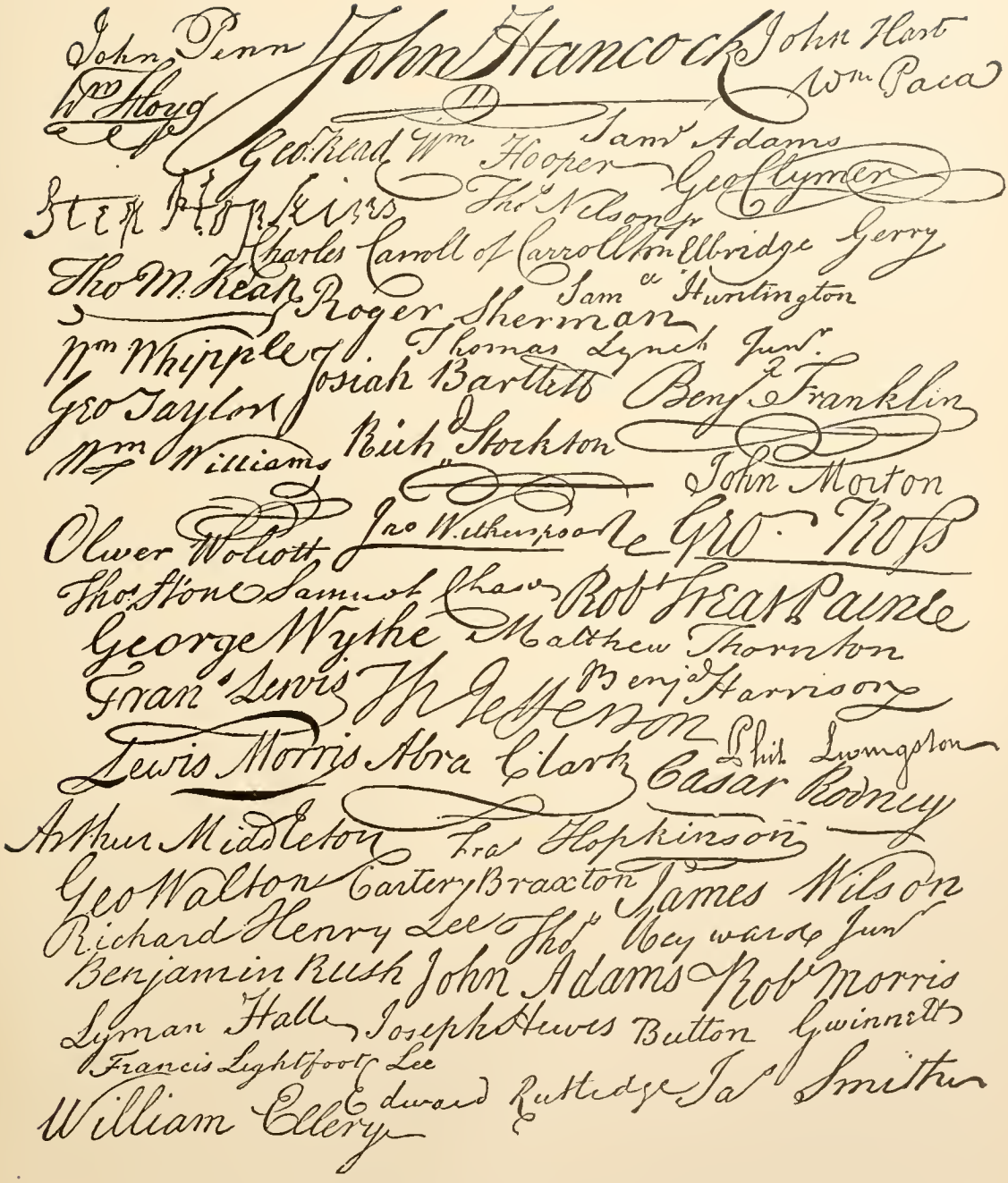
CHAPTER II.

1776. THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

ALL this time the Continental congress was in session. The crisis was so grave that the statesmen assembled in the old Independence Hall in Philadelphia felt that they ought not to adjourn. They had appointed Washington commander-in-chief,

STATUE OF JEFFERSON IN FRONT OF THE WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON.

had divided the colonies into military divisions, and in short, had done their utmost to help forward the struggle, and to sustain the great and good man entrusted with the leadership of the armies.



FAC-SIMILE OF THE SIGNATURES TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

I have already told you that during the early days of the Revolution the expectation was quite general that there would be no independence of the colonies. The injustice of England had driven our ancestors into rebellion, but they hoped to compel the mother country to grant them their rights, so that they might still remain loyal subjects of the king.

The time had now come, however, when it was plain that such hope was a delusion. The morose, bigoted monarch, George III., had pronounced them rebels, and had made vast preparations to force them into submission. A number of the colonies had made declarations that paved the way for what was to come. You have been told of the resolutions adopted at Mecklenburg, North Carolina. It is claimed that others of similar import were passed elsewhere at a still earlier date, but the great and all important one was that which was put forth by the Continental congress.

During the early days of June, the question of declaring the complete independence of the colonies was introduced into congress by Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, who offered the following resolutions, which were seconded by John Adams of Massachusetts:

"That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved.

"That it is expedient forthwith to take the most effectual measures for forming foreign alliances.

"That a plan of confederation be prepared and transmitted to the respective colonies for their consideration and support."

Congress saw the momentous importance of the step, and moved carefully. Action on the resolution was postponed until the 10th. That day it was again voted that nothing should be done with the first resolution until Monday, the 1st of July. Since there could be no doubt what the final action would be, a committee was appointed to prepare a declaration embodying the first resolution. The next day a committee was appointed composed of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman and R. R. Livingston.

If you will recall the military situation at that particular date, you will see under what discouraging surroundings our republic was born. Every thing had gone wrong with the Continental army which invaded Canada; a letter was received from Washington giving a gloomy account of the outlook at New York; and the British expedition against Charleston was known, but news of its defeat had not yet reached Philadelphia.

On Monday, July 1st, congress, as agreed upon, considered the question of independence. John Adams, who had seconded the resolution of Lee, was the first speaker. He strongly favored the step, and was replied to by Dickinson of Pennsylvania, who though an eloquent and ardent patriot, saw, just then, "as through a glass darkly," believing that the hour had not yet come for taking the important step.

When ready for the vote, a singular condition of affairs became apparent. Nine of the colonies were ready to commit themselves, but four were not. The delegates from

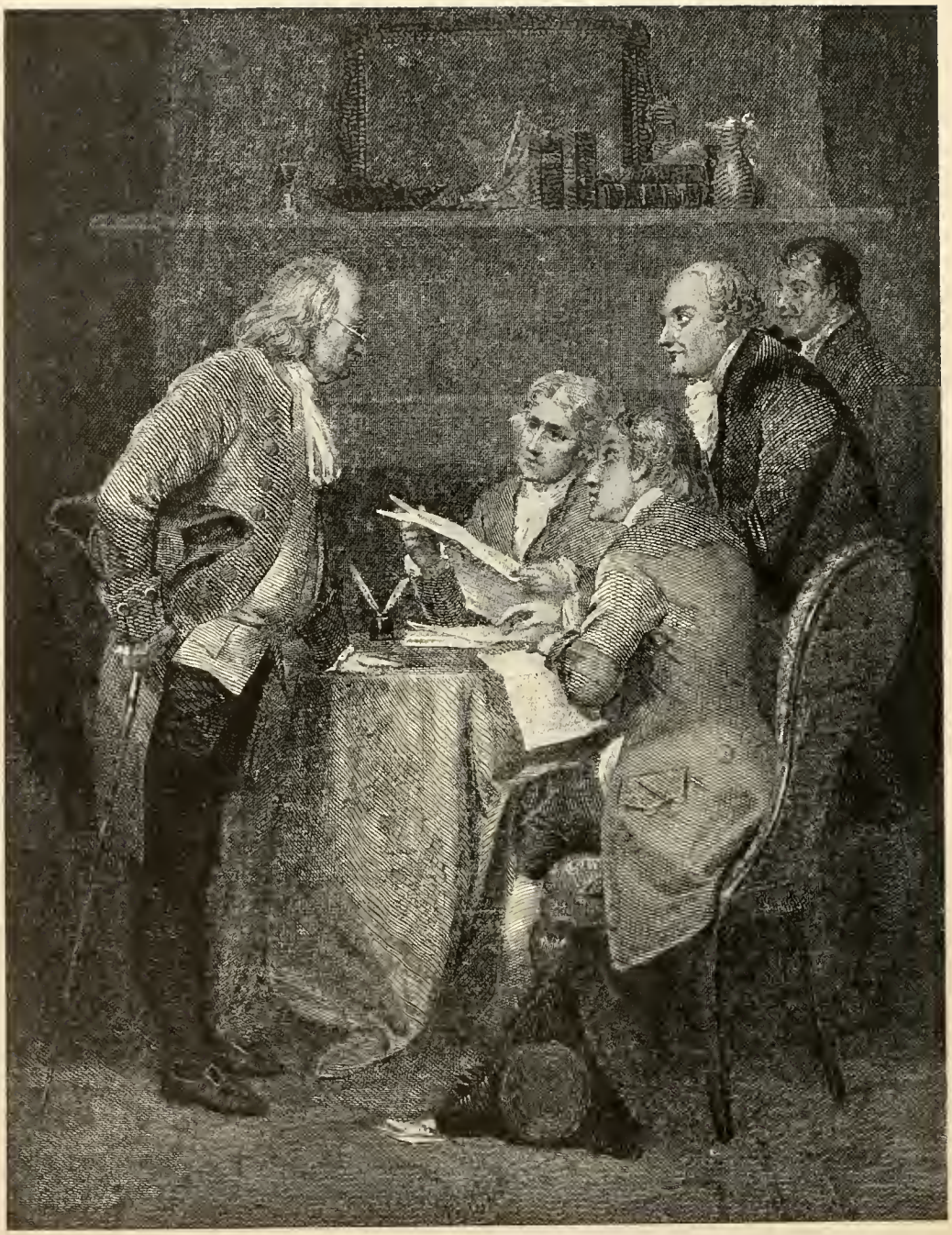
South Carolina (the last colony that could be suspected of hesitation), were opposed to the resolution of independence. Of the seven from Pennsylvania four were against and three in favor. Only two of the Delaware delegates were present, and they were opposed to each other; and the delegates from New York presented a letter from their local congress, asking that action be withheld until the result of the recent elections could be learned. With a single exception, however, all the New York delegates favored independence.

The resolution was again laid over till the next day, the 2d. When congress assembled, it was found that Dickinson and Morris, two of the Pennsylvania delegates in opposition, were absent, so that the three who favored were in the majority. A third delegate arrived from Delaware, and secured the vote of that state in favor. Those of South Carolina agreed to go with the majority. Only New York held back, simply because her delegates were restrained by the home instructions. They gave their sanction a week later. John Adams, writing to his wife in Boston, said on the 3d of July: "I believe that this day — the 2d — will be celebrated by succeeding generations as a great anniversary festival. It ought to be commemorated as the day of deliverance, by solemn acts of devotion to God Almighty. It ought to be solemnized with pomp and parade, with shows, games, sport, guns, bells, bonfires and illuminations, from one end of this continent to the other, from this time forward, for evermore. You will think me transported by enthusiasm, but I am not. I am well aware of the toil, and blood, and treasure, that it will cost us to maintain this declaration, and support and defend these states. Yet, through all the gloom, I can see the rays of ravishing light and glory. I can see that the end is more than worth all the means, and that posterity will triumph in that day's transactions, even although we should rue it, which I trust in God we shall not."

The assent of the delegates had been given to the declaration, "That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved."

Meanwhile, Thomas Jefferson was hard at work on the Declaration of Independence. The committee to whom was entrusted the work (although it included John Adams and Benjamin Franklin), turned it over to the younger member, who was known to possess a remarkable power of expressing popular ideas, and because he represented Virginia, the oldest of the colonies. The house in which Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence is still standing in Philadelphia.

The author reported it to congress on the 28th of June, and it was read and ordered to lie on the table. When the debate was concluded on the 2nd of July, the Declaration was considered in detail. During the rest of the day and the two following it was reviewed with great care, and some alterations were made in it. It is not clear what those alterations were. Jefferson says he showed the manuscript to John Adams and Franklin separately, as he wished their judgment. All their corrections appeared on the paper in their own handwriting. Adams says that Jefferson and he acted as a sub-committee and reviewed the production critically, without making or sug-



DRAFTING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE. THE COMMITTEE—FRANKLIN, JEFFERSON, ADAMS, LIVINGSTON, AND SHERMAN.

gesting any alteration. There is reason to believe, however, that Adams introduced quite a number of changes, though, as has been stated, he fought hard, during the debate, for the retention of every word.

During the long discussion Jefferson was only a listener, but he said he was often nettled by the criticisms. A clause condemning the bondage of negroes was struck out

SILAS DEANE.

in deference to South Carolina and Georgia and perhaps to some of the northern colonies, which you must remember held slaves at that time.

The debate ended late on the afternoon of the 4th of July. The Declaration of Independence was then adopted and signed by every member present, except Dickinson. The 4th of July, 1776, therefore, will be commemorated as the birthday of our republic, as long as our republic endures.

Thomas Jefferson deserves the honor of being the author of the Declaration of

Independence. Since it is impossible to overestimate its importance, and because it should be familiar to all American youth, it is given below in full:

"IN CONGRESS, JULY 4TH, 1776—A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED.

"When in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

"We hold these truths to be self-evident:—That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

"He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good. He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only. He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures. He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people. He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise,

the state remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within. He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands. He has obstructed the administration of justice by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers. He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries. He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance. He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures. He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power. He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws: giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation for quartering large bodies of armed troops among us; for protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states; for cutting off our trade with all parts of the world; for imposing taxes on us without our consent; for depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury; for transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses; for abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies; for taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments; for suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

"He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people. He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation. He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands. He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

"In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

"Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of

our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must therefore acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind — enemies in war, in peace friends.

"We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor."

"JOHN HANCOCK."

Since John Hancock was the president of congress, his signature stood by itself. It was followed by the signatures of the delegates from New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York (given the following week), New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Matthew Thornton of New Hampshire was allowed to sign it on the 4th of November, just four months after its adoption.

On the same day that the Declaration was adopted, it was ordered that copies should be sent to the several assemblies, conventions and committees or councils of safety, and to the commanding officers of the Continental troops, and that it be proclaimed in each of the United States and at the head of the army.

The first public celebration of the event was in Philadelphia on the 8th of July. It did not take place earlier because printed copies were not ready sooner. At noon on the day named, the committee of safety and of inspection, the officers of the city government and the members of congress marched in procession from the hall to the yard, where an immense multitude had gathered. John Nixon, a member of the committee of safety, then read from the balcony in a loud and clear voice the immortal Declaration of Independence, which was received with cheers and uproarious enthusiasm. The day was given to jollification, and the old Liberty Bell pealed out its joyous notes over the town and along the Delaware.

I hope that most readers of these pages have looked upon the Liberty Bell of Philadelphia. It will always remain one of the most precious heir-looms of our country. It is now broken, and its iron tongue is forever silent, but the duty which it did more than a hundred years ago has given it a glory that can never perish.

DETECTION OF AN INCENDIARY. (*See page 28.*)

Pen drawing by W. L. Jumel.

When you enter the old Independence Hall on Chestnut Street in Philadelphia and view the bell, you can not fail to be struck with the beauty and significance of the words cast upon it long years before any one dreamed of the Revolution: "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land unto all the inhabitants thereof." The bell was an object of great interest at the Centennial Exposition held at Philadelphia in 1876, and at all other Expositions at which it has been exhibited.

It is impossible to describe the rejoicing with which the news of the Declaration of Independence was received throughout the colonies, or rather the United States as they must hereafter be called. The symbols of royalty were torn down and burned. The leaden equestrian statue of King George, standing in Bowling Green, New York, was overthrown, the head taken off, and wheeled to the house of the governor. The rest of the statue was molded into more than forty thousand bullets, and used to fight the subjects of King George.

There was reason for this excess of joy, but those who stopped to think saw that serious work was before them. Although the colonies had declared themselves independent, it remained for them to secure that independence. Great Britain was not to be frightened into acknowledging them as the United States of America. On the contrary, she was sure to put forth her mightiest efforts to conquer those who had dared to rebel against her authority.

CHAPTER III.

1776. THE CAMPAIGN IN NEW YORK.

ON the very day that the attack was made on Fort Moultrie at Charleston, a part of the British fleet from Nova Scotia arrived off Sandy Hook. You will recall that when Howe evacuated Boston with his troops, during the previous March, he sailed for Halifax, from which point he now came with re-enforcements, meaning to capture the city of New York.

Before General Lee went south to take charge of affairs there, he had done a good deal in the way of fortifying New York against the attack that every one knew would soon be made, but the general was no more hopeful of the northern than of the southern city. He was quite sure that a successful defense could not be made against a strong attack. But Washington did not share this misgiving. On his arrival in New York, he set to work to strengthen the defenses in every possible manner. His best engineers were given charge of the business, and thousands of men plied pick and shovel as if their very lives were at stake.

General Putman believed Governor's Island was a place of great strategic importance. He, therefore, seized it early in April, before the arrival of Washington, and threw up breastworks as a protection against Tryon's ships. Red Hook, on Long Island, was also occupied. Some weeks later fortifications were erected at Paulus Hook (now Jersey City), and hulks were sunk in the channel between Governor's Island and the Battery.

During the summer, the building of Fort Lee was begun on the Palisades, up the Hudson, while on the New York side, where now is 183d Street, stood the work known as Fort Washington. Three water-batteries were erected along the shore between Red Hook and Fort Lee, so that by the time the British fleet arrived almost a hundred cannon and mortars were mounted and ready for service. No point was neglected, and when Washington came upon the ground he improved the defenses every hour. It was not long before New York was an intrenched camp.

General Sir William Howe, commanding the British forces, was the first to arrive, reaching Sandy Hook in the frigate *Greyhound*. Governor Tryon gave him a fawning welcome. You must not forget that New York abounded with loyalists or Tories, and Governor Tryon was one of the chief of them.

When we compare the battles of the Revolution with those of our Civil War, the former seem very slight, yet they were in many cases of vast importance, and sometimes assumed large proportions.

The intention of General Howe was to land on Long Island, but the strong defenses of the Americans caused him to disembark his troops on Staten Island, where he made

his head-quarters. Admiral Howe arrived soon after, and in August came the Hessians, the hirelings for whom Great Britain paid thirty-six dollars a head. Altogether the forces numbered thirty-two thousand men. One-fourth of them were Hessians, under the command of General De Heister, a veteran of many campaigns. They formed a very important part of the British army.

Against this well-equipped and disciplined force, Washington could oppose an army of scarcely half the number, poorly-disciplined, a large number without uniforms, and many lacking in courage and genuine patriotism. They were miserably paid, and the terms of enlistment expired at such various times, that it may be said the discharged soldiers and deserters formed a continuous procession from camp, the recruits making a similar procession from the opposite direction.

In the American ranks were men and officers from nearly every state. Wherever there was any attempt at uniform, each state had its own ; but as most of them had none at all, their ragged dress was in striking contrast to the brilliant uniform of the British.

General Howe's first step on reaching New York was to send two ships and three tenders up the Hudson. He expected by this means to cut off from Washington's army communication with the country and with Canada, thus shutting off its supplies. His purpose was also to take soundings of the river and to encourage the Tories who, as you know, were numerous in that section. The ships got by the batteries without special injury, and were gone more than a month. When they came back, they had but two tenders, one having been burned by the Americans.

Both Admiral and General Howe felt a strong admiration for the colonies, and gladly carried out their orders to make advances with a view of bringing back the Americans to their allegiance without further fighting. On the 14th of July Lord Howe sent a flag of truce within the lines, bearing a letter addressed to "George Washington, Esq." When Adjutant-general Reed observed the superscription, he refused to receive it, explaining that there was no person in the American army with such an address. Some time after, the letter was again sent forward, directed to "George Washington, etc., etc., etc." At the same time it was explained that personally Lord Howe would be happy to recognize the most exalted title that could be given Washington, but that his king would not permit him, in his official capacity, to do so. He wished it understood that the second address was to be accepted as signifying whatever General Washington desired.

While this might be considered to some extent a concession, it was not satisfactory, and Washington still refused to receive the communication. The wishes of Lord Howe, however, were made known to Washington and to a committee of congress, but you scarcely need to be told that nothing came of the proposition.

On the 22d of August, the British troops were transferred from Staten Island to Gravesend Bay on Long Island, the movement being covered by a sharp fire from the fleet. It could no longer be doubted that the British, instead of bombarding New York, meant to advance upon the city across Long Island. Expecting such a movement, Washington had stationed Greene's division at Brooklyn. Unfortunately, however, General Greene himself (one of the very best leaders of the Revolution), was stricken

WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE. (*See page 34.*)

From the painting by Leutze.

down with a violent fever, and General Sullivan, his inferior in ability, was appointed to take his place. Excellent fortifications had been erected, and the Americans were confident of repulsing any attack of the enemy. Had they been commanded by Greene or any other capable officer, it is almost certain they would have been successful.

The English forces that now occupied the villages of Utrecht, Gravesend and Flatlands, numbered fifteen thousand men, while Cornwallis, with the reserves and Donop's Hessians drove back Hand's Pennsylvania riflemen who were employed in patroling the coast, and then advanced to Flatbush.

The main line of the American intrenchments reached from Wallabout Bay (now the Brooklyn Navy Yard), to Gowanus Bay, less than a mile and a half, and included five strong redoubts. A range of hills, covered in most places by a dense wood and crossed by three roads, occupied the space between Brooklyn and the landing place of General Howe. Breastworks had been thrown up at the principal passes of the hills, and three thousand soldiers were placed where it was believed they could check the advance of a much superior force.

For two or three days after landing nothing took place except a few skirmishes. It was the task of the British to force their way through the hills and to defeat the American army stationed at Brooklyn.

General Sullivan boasted that the weakest pass was so strong that it could not be forced by an angel. He excelled in boasting, if not in generalship, and Washington removed him, and placed General Israel Putnam in his place, though Putnam himself proved to be a very poor leader. He was wise enough, however, to take a few precautions against surprise. Had he followed the orders of Washington he might have averted the disaster which soon overtook him, but Putnam was out-generaled from the first.

He placed strong guards at the pass nearest the Narrows, and on the Flatbush road; but the one that was in front of the British right he left unguarded, except by an officer and several men, who were to give notice should the enemy advance in that direction. It was a most dangerous opening, but inasmuch as the Americans offered it to the foe, you may be sure the latter took advantage of it. The troops at the pass next the Narrows were under Lord Stirling, and those in the middle were commanded by Sullivan.

Having learned the precise disposition of the American army, Howe decided to send the main part of his forces over the eastern road, which was left undefended, and thus turn the left flank of the patriots. At daylight on the 27th of August Clinton and Cornwallis moved over this road, an attack having been made at the other two passes, so as to divert attention from the real movement. Even the officer who was placed on the extreme American left to give the alarm seemed to have fallen asleep, for he did not discover the peril until it was upon him. The British, without the slightest difficulty, gained the rear of the American division which was defending the pass on the middle road. Grant and De Heister had been ordered to advance slowly so as to give Clinton and Cornwallis time to execute the flank movement. Unsuspicious of the scheme, the Americans fought bravely at the middle pass and were in high spirits over

the slight impression the trained troops made upon them. Little did they suspect that the Hessians were purposely holding back. It was not long, however, before the sound of guns on their right told Grant and De Heister that their allies had flanked the Americans. Then these officers assailed the patriots with great fury.

The forces guarding the extreme western pass fell back at first, but Lord Stirling, their commander, afterward made a bold stand, and his men fought with splendid courage and firmness, but every thing was against them. The center under Sullivan which was assailed by Grant and De Heister kept the Hessians off for awhile, but when the Americans discovered that the British were moving around to their rear, they began to fall back. While doing so Clinton and Cornwallis appeared behind them and opened a fierce attack. Thus Sullivan was caught directly between two fires — English on one side and Hessians on the other. Nerved to desperation, and seeing it was their only hope, his men cut their way through the English line, and most of them succeeded in reaching the camp at Brooklyn.

The detachment of Lord Stirling was surprised in the same manner. His soldiers fought bravely until they saw there was no hope, when they broke and scattered in wild confusion. Most of them fled along the dyke of a mill-dam and through the marsh at Gowanus Bay. Many were drowned, and only a few scrambled panting into camp. By noon the Americans were routed at every point. They had been out-generaled and overwhelmed by the British troops.

Washington, with an anguish which can not be expressed, witnessed the defeat of his army. He crossed over to Brooklyn and sent forward every man that could be spared, but all was in vain. The English and Hessians chased the panic-stricken Americans to the foot of the lines in Brooklyn, and clamored so loudly to assault the position at once that Howe, who had just come up, found it difficult to check their ardor. That night they encamped in front of the American works. Howe explained that he was confident he could have carried the works at once, but preferred to save the lives that it would have cost, and to secure victory by the slower but equally sure plan of regular approaches. It was a golden opportunity that the British general thus let slip, for had he pressed on he would probably have captured the whole Continental army, including Washington and the leading generals.

The loss of the Americans was very heavy, aggregating probably three hundred killed and wounded, and nearly a thousand prisoners. Among the prisoners were Lord Stirling and General Sullivan. The British lost nearly four hundred officers and soldiers.

The next morning Howe opened his approaches about a third of a mile from one of the redoubts. The situation of the American army was extremely critical. Many of the officers believed it impossible to escape destruction, for as soon as the British fleet should sail up East River it would cut off all retreat on the part of the patriots.

It was in such crises as this that Washington showed his real greatness. No man could have been tried more sorely than he. He often ran short of ammunition and supplies, and the noble patriots who clung to him and the sacred cause all through the dark days which "tried men's souls," were wretchedly paid and more often not

paid at all. Many of his soldiers were insubordinate, cowardly, and totally lacking in patriotism. His strict orders were sometimes disobeyed by trusted officers, and at times his soul was stirred with wrath by the criminal shortcomings of those around him. And yet it can not be said that he ever despaired. The deeper the discouragement and peril, the more lofty was his courage. He was great in many things, especially as a statesman and soldier. He was born to be the saviour of his country, and the glory which attaches to his name can never be dimmed.

Washington had ten thousand men in Brooklyn, a little more than one-half the force that was gathering itself to destroy him. But the elements were for a time on the side of the patriots. A strong head-wind prevented the ships from entering the harbor, and it rained incessantly on the 28th and 29th, so that the invaders could do nothing.

The commander-in-chief called a council of war on the afternoon of the 29th. The danger was so clear to all that it was decided almost immediately to withdraw the American army from Long Island. Every boat that could be procured was taken, and with the least possible delay the Continentals were taken across. It was indeed a most trying time. Had Howe learned what was going on, he could have attacked and destroyed the retreating army. For two days and nights Washington was almost continually in the saddle, passing back and forth, giving orders, encouraging his men, and overseeing all the details of the movement. The wind and rain made the passage very difficult. Once it seemed impossible to continue, but toward midnight the wind moderated, so that sailboats could be used, and the passage then became easy. It took thirteen hours to complete the transfer, but, when morning dawned, a heavy fog hung over the river, so completely veiling the movements that the military stores, nearly all the provisions, and most of the guns were safely removed to the New York side. Within half an hour after the rear guard had left the fog lifted, and Howe then learned that the American army had slipped through his hands. General Greene, one of the best authorities, declared that Washington's retreat was the most masterly he had ever read or heard of.

But it can not be said that the American army was yet safe, for it was so much weaker than the one opposed to it that it could not hold New York. As an evidence of the disheartening situation of Washington, the following is an extract from a letter written by him to congress on the 2d of September:

"Our situation is truly distressing. The check our detachment sustained on the 27th ultimo has dispirited too great a proportion of our troops, and filled their minds with apprehension and despair. The militia, instead of calling forth their utmost efforts to a brave and manly opposition in order to repair our losses, are dismayed, intractable, and impatient to return. Great numbers of them have gone off; in some instances, almost by whole regiments, by half ones, and by companies, at a time. This circumstance of itself, independent of others, when fronted by a well-appointed enemy, superior in number to our whole collected force, would be sufficiently disagreeable; but when their example has infected another part of the army — when their want of discipline, and refusal of almost every kind of restraint and government have produced a like conduct, but too common, to the whole, and an entire disregard of that order and subordina-

tion necessary to the well-doing of an army, and which had been inculcated before as well as the nature of our military establishment would admit of — our condition becomes still more alarming; and, with the deepest concern, I am obliged to confess my want of confidence in the generality of the troops."

Shortly after the foregoing letter

COLONEL RALL AND ABRAHAM HUNT.

was written the English fleet entered the harbor, and an armed vessel sailed up the East River. Instead of bombarding the city, however, it became apparent

that the enemy intended to approach by the land side. At the council of war that was held General Greene (hardly recovered from his severe attack of fever), favored destroying the city, so as to prevent the British from using it as winter quarters or deriving any advantage whatsoever. Greene, by way of argument, declared that two-thirds of New York belonged to Tories. Other members of the council maintained that the place should be defended to the last extremity. It was finally decided to post troops so as to resist attacks on the upper part of Manhattan Island, and to retreat with the remainder, should the necessity arise. The regiments were accordingly distributed with this end in view, and preparations made for removing the sick (numbering one-fourth of the army), to the Jersey side of the Hudson.

Hostilities were stopped at this time by another attempt at negotiation. A little while before, General Sullivan, at his own request, was sent to Philadelphia, with a verbal message from Lord Howe to congress, asking the privilege of an interview with some of the members. Howe stated, however, that he could act only as a private gentleman, but added that he had full power to compromise the disputes between Great Britain and America on terms advantageous to both. The labor of securing the proffer he was prepared to make had kept him nearly two months in England, and prevented his return until after the Declaration of Independence. He was anxious to enter into a compact before a decisive blow should be struck.

On the 5th of September congress resolved that it could not allow any of its members to confer with Lord Howe in a private capacity, but that it was willing to show its desire for peace by sending a committee of that body to learn whether his lordship had any authority to treat with persons authorized by congress for that purpose, and to hear any propositions he might choose to make. General Sullivan was directed to carry back this message to Lord Howe. The next day Franklin, John Adams and Edward Rutledge were appointed the committee charged with this delicate duty. They met Lord Howe on Staten Island, on the 11th of September. The admiral received them with great courtesy, and showed by his manner his strong desire to conciliate the Americans.

The distinguished host introduced the business by reminding them that he was treating with them only as a private gentleman, but they insisted on regarding themselves as the official representatives of congress. Waiving the point, however, the real business of the interview was discussed. Lord Howe referred to the good feeling of the king and ministers toward the colonies, and was quite sure that, if they would submit, the offensive acts of parliament would be revised, the instructions to the governors reconsidered, so that any thing amiss could be withdrawn. The commissioners responded by reminding the admiral that the repeated petitions of the colonies to the king and parliament had not only been treated with contempt, but answered by fresh indignities; that it was not until the last act of parliament, which pronounced war against them and put them out of the king's protection, that they had declared their independence; and that this declaration had been demanded by the people themselves and approved by every colony. They assured Howe that all the colonies considered themselves independent states, and were establishing or had already established their governments accordingly;

and that it was not in the power of congress to act for the states, or to restore them to their former condition of dependency. The commissioners added that there could be no doubt of their wish for peace and of their readiness to enter into a treaty with Great Britain. If England felt the same desire, his lordship could readily obtain power from his government to treat with them as independent states.

The position taken by the commissioners was firmly maintained. Of necessity it closed the discussion, Lord Howe expressing his regret and parting with them in the most courteous manner. He ought to have known that his scheme was chimerical. A new member was added to the family of nations; one that knew its rights, and, knowing, dared maintain them.

Lord Howe and his brother lost no time in the effort to destroy Washington's army, and to capture New York. On the 13th of September four ships passed up the East River, dropping anchor about a mile above the city. Six more followed the next day; troops landed on Buchanan's Island, and a cannonade was opened on Horen's Hook. On the 15th three men-of-war went up the Hudson to Bloomingdale. This movement was a feint to divert attention from the operations of General Howe, who had dispatched a division under Clinton from Newtown Bay, on Long Island, to Kips' Bay, on the East River. The Americans in charge of the batteries at the latter point fled before the cannonade of the five English vessels, whose fire covered the landing of the troops. Washington was at Harlem, several miles above the city, watching the movements of the enemy, when he heard the firing and hastened back to the place of landing. The sight that met his gaze filled him with disgust and wrath. Less than a hundred of the English and Hessians were in sight, but the Americans had fled without firing a shot, while two brigades which had been ordered up to support them wheeled about and joined in the stampede. Washington, Putnam, Parsons and other officers rode in among the men and with drawn swords strove to arrest the disorderly flight. Washington was so furious that he snapped his pistols at several of the officers, struck others with the flat of his sword and threatened to run them through. Flinging his hat to the ground, he exclaimed,

"Are these the men that are to fight the battles of America?"

Unable to check the mob by such means, the commander-in-chief galloped his horse toward the enemy, hoping that his example might give some courage where none existed. The action produced no effect, however, and he allowed one of his aids to turn the head of his steed in the other direction. The troops continued their disorderly flight until they joined the main body at Harlem Heights.

Putnam hastened down to New York, and, with the help of Aaron Burr, led the troops up the west side of the island through the woods, reaching Harlem at nightfall. Howe was in hot pursuit of this column, which escaped him only by the merest chance.

New York thus fell into the hands of the British, who had captured three hundred prisoners, also most of the heavy cannon, and a quantity of baggage, stores and provisions. The American army drew itself together on Harlem Heights, while the British forces encamped in their front, their right resting on the East River and their left on the Hudson, with ships of war supporting both flanks.

CHAPTER IV.

1776. THE RETREAT THROUGH NEW JERSEY.

THE rain fell in torrents that evening and hundreds of the men threw themselves down in the mud and slept without the least protection. This state of affairs was due to their own cowardy flight, and few could pity them. He who really merited sympathy was Washington, who might well despair of gaining the independence of America with such an army. But his wonderful self-poise never left him.

The following day a sharp skirmish took place which restored the spirits of officers and men. A hundred and fifty New England Rangers, under Lieutenant-colonel Thomas Knowlton, who were on scouting duty, approached a point of Bloomingdale road, where it was believed the English had encamped the previous evening. They were found in large force, and after some hot firing Knowlton's ammunition ran short, and he retreated toward the main body, the British following.

Washington saw the importance of gaining a victory over the enemy, though the material benefit would be slight. The pursuing British having halted for a time, he hastily disposed his men with the view of capturing them in a body. He increased his own forces, and they added to theirs, until over a thousand men were engaged on each side. In maneuvering to get to the rear of the English, however, a body of Americans opened fire too soon. The British saw their danger and fell back in confusion. The patriots followed with ardor, but Washington, not wishing to bring on a general engagement, recalled the troops.

The Americans lost some seventy-five privates killed and wounded. Among the officers slain was Knowlton, one of the best soldiers in the service. "I do not care for my life," said he when he fell, "if we only win the day." The moral effect of the victory was of the greatest benefit to the Americans. It infused the much-needed courage into the entire army.

General Howe was welcomed to New York by the Tories that remained after the flight of the Americans. There were others whose hatred of the invaders was so intense that they struck blindly, firing in several places until a reign of terror existed. British soldiers patroled the streets, and, detecting incendiaries at work, shot them without mercy. One conflagration was so serious that nearly a thousand houses, equal to a fourth of the city, were destroyed. Among the buildings burned were Trinity and the Lutheran Church. Columbia (then King's) College narrowly escaped destruction.

A short time before this Captain Nathan Hale of Connecticut had volunteered to enter the British lines in quest of information, which was sorely needed by Washington. As he wore no uniform, he was, according to the laws of war, a spy and liable to be hanged

STATUE OF NATHAN HALE, CITY HALL PARK, NEW YORK. (*See page 29.*)

if detected by the enemy. Captain Hale was a brave man who shrank from no duty.

Sad to say, he was suspected, arrested and taken to Howe's headquarters, at Turtle Bay on the East River. The papers found on him left no doubt of his errand, and in fact he did not deny it. He was condemned to death without a trial and even the small-

WASHINGTON CALLS ON COL. RALL.

est favors were denied him. He was refused the presence of a clergyman, and a Bible was denied him during his last hours. The farewell letters which he wrote to his mother and sisters were destroyed by the provost-marshal. He was hanged the morning after his capture (which was also the morning succeeding the great fire), near the corner of East Broadway and Market Street. "I only regret," said the patriot, "that I have but one life to give to my country."

No one knows where he was buried. Could his ashes be found, it is possible they might have as splendid a monument as that which was reared on the spot where a few years afterward a British spy was executed.

Although forced to retreat before the vastly superior numbers of the enemy, Washington moved with great care and skill. His position at Harlem was so strong that Howe did not dare assail it ; it was not until the cool days of autumn that the British commander was ready to resume the offensive. On the 12th of October his advance passed through Hell Gate in flat-boats and landed at Frog's Point, on the mainland of New York. There he stayed five days waiting for provisions, stores, and re-enforcements. Then he re-embarked, landed at Pell's Point, and advanced to the high grounds between East Chester and New Rochelle. A few days later he was re-enforced by a number of Hessian regiments.

You may be sure that Washington watched every movement of the enemy and neglected no precaution. He arranged his army in four divisions. General Lee, who had lately come from the south, commanded one, while the others were under the direction of Generals Heath, Sullivan and Lincoln. Lee vehemently protested to Washington against risking every thing on a pitched battle.

The commander-in-chief called a council of war on the 16th. It was agreed that Harlem Heights could not be held against an advance by Howe, and the decision was therefore made to withdraw all the forces except the garrison of Fort Washington. General Greene expressed great confidence in its strength, and had much to do with persuading Washington to leave a strong body of troops in it. The place certainly possessed great natural and artificial advantages. Washington had been so impressed by the admirable manner in which it was laid out and built, that he sought the acquaintance of the young engineer, Alexander Hamilton, of whom you have probably heard, and of whom I shall have something to tell you further on. Its garrison of three thousand men was under the command of Colonel Robert Magaw of Philadelphia.

In accordance with the agreement reached by the council, Washington gradually fell back along the hills near the Bronx River (whose course is parallel with that of the Hudson), retreating, as we may say, with his face toward the foe, and ready to strike him the moment he ventured within reach.

Washington's line of detached camps, with intrenchments, reached from Valentine's Hill to White Plains, a distance of twelve miles. This line was stronger on the flanks than in the center. Howe spent several days in feeling the American position, numerous skirmishes taking place without decisive results. The real attaek was made on the 28th of October.

The British general divided his army into two columns, leading the left himself, while the right was under Clinton. Had they converged on the American center they could have driven their army like a wedge directly through the American line and split it in two ; but the attack was confined to the flanks, and especially to Chatterton's Hill, where four thousand patriots were strongly posted. The Americans, after inflicting severe loss on their assailants, were compelled to fall back. In capturing the hill, the two wings of the British army were widely separated, and the American center was saved from

attack. The British commander thus threw away a chance of delivering a crushing blow, not daring to attempt pursuit through fear of weakening his force. The invaders were on both sides of the Bronx, but Washington, withdrawing to Northcastle Heights, assumed a strong position, while Howe, after remaining at White Plains for several days, turned back, with the determination of reducing Fort Washington.

Whether this important post should be held or abandoned was a source of deep anxiety in many quarters. Congress was desirous that it should remain in our hands in order to defend the Hudson. General Greene believed that the British intended to advance into New Jersey with a view to marching on Philadelphia, and he, therefore, was strongly in favor of holding the post in order to compel them to leave a part of their army in New York. Washington did not place such a high estimate on its value, and events proved that he was right.

On the 16th of November, the British in overwhelming numbers assailed the fort on all sides. General Howe sent to Colonel Magaw a demand for its surrender, threatening in case of refusal to put the garrison to the sword. Colonel Magaw replied that such a threat was unworthy a man professing civilization, but that it mattered little. however, as he would defend the post to the last extremity.

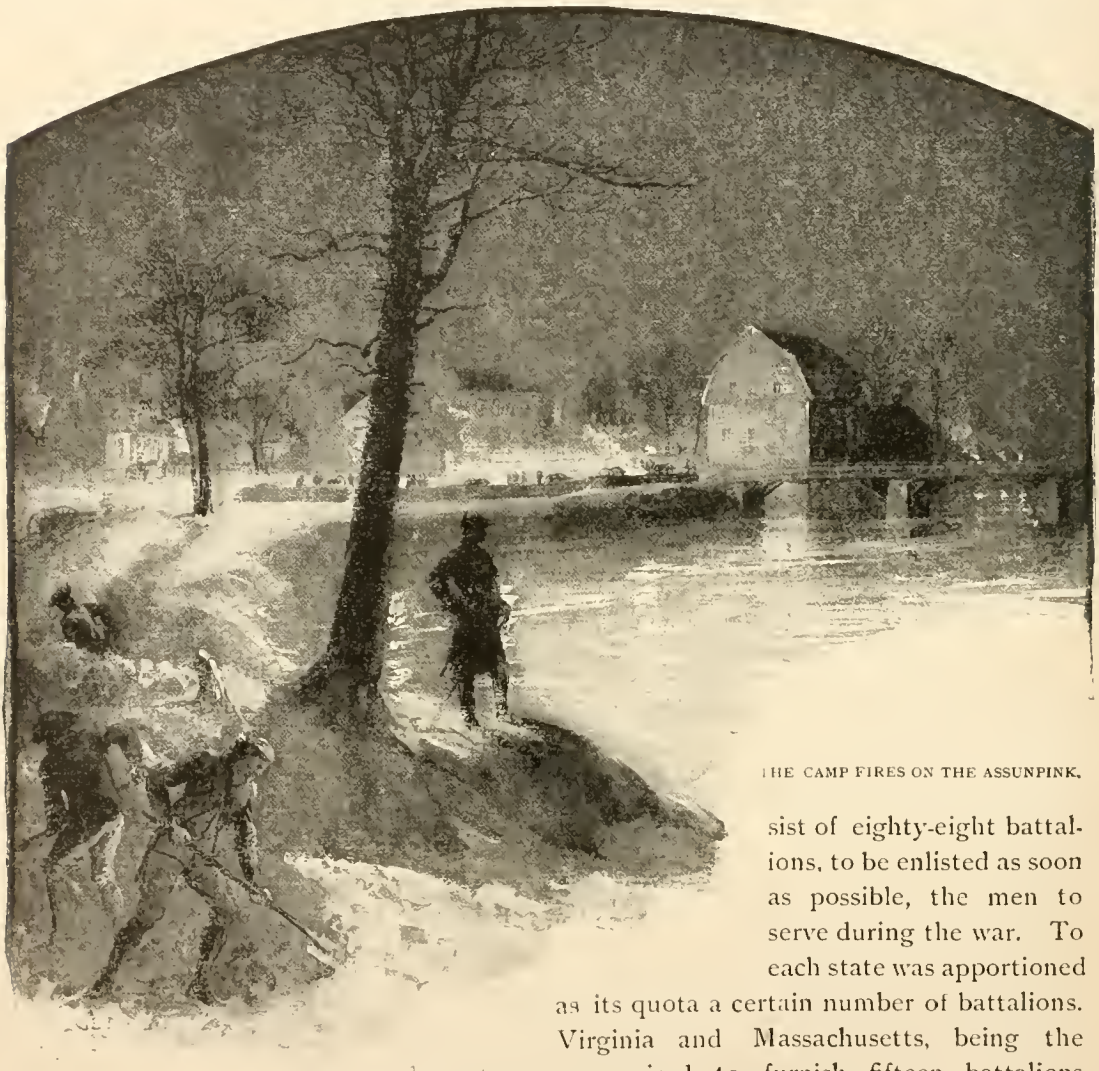
A furious attack of four hours drove the defenders from the outer lines to within the fort itself. Colonel Magaw, who was more of a lawyer than a soldier, concluded by this time that the "last extremity" had come, and surrendered his garrison. All the prisoners received honorable treatment, so that the threat of Howe could not have been made in earnest.

Fearful of a campaign against Philadelphia, Washington had crossed to the west bank of the Hudson and posted himself with General Greene at Fort Lee. Two days after the surrender of Fort Washington, Cornwallis, with six thousand men, landed at a point almost opposite Yonkers. Fort Lee could not hope to hold out against such a force, and was abandoned by General Greene, the American army withdrawing to the other side of the Hackensack, between that stream and the Passaic. With a view to protecting Philadelphia, Washington continued retreating southward through New Jersey, with Cornwallis in close pursuit. From Newark the patriots made their way to Brunswick (now New Brunswick), and thence toward Trenton on the Delaware. Cornwallis followed by way of Elizabethtown, Uniontown, Woodbridge, and other places, confiscating horses, cattle, and every thing on which he could lay hands. As the Americans were going out of Newark the British were entering it, the armies being continually in sight of each other and exchanging many shots.

These were the dark days of the Revolution. You have heard many a time of the sufferings of the Continental soldiers, but I am sure the reality was far worse than you have pictured it. The men were in rags, many were barefooted, and all were poorly armed and half starved. So many deserted that at times it looked as if the army would go to pieces.

From the first, Washington had protested to congress against the method of short enlistments, by which it may be said his army was so continually changing its membership that those with whom he was forced to enter battle could never acquire the steadiness

of veterans. He properly insisted that when the men enlisted it should be for the war. He urged too that the soldiers should receive better pay. His arguments were for a long time unheeded; but the evacuation of New York proved the wisdom of his views, and congress decided to organize the army anew. It was ordered that it should consist of eighty-eight battalions, to be enlisted as soon as possible, the men to serve during the war. To each state was apportioned as its quota a certain number of battalions. Virginia and Massachusetts, being the largest, were required to furnish fifteen battalions each. A bounty of twenty dollars and one hundred acres of land was promised to every private soldier and non-commissioned officer. Each state was required to enlist its own men and to provide them with arms and clothing. Colonels and all lower officers were to be appointed by states, but commissioned by congress. A new set of rules for a stricter discipline of the army was provided.



THE CAMP FIRES ON THE ASSUNPINK.

To meet the heavy expenses, congress resolved to borrow five million dollars, pledging the faith of the United States for the payment of principal and interest. With

a view of securing foreign alliances, three secret envoys were appointed to the court of France. They were Silas Deane, who had been acting as such in Paris; Arthur Lee, a Virginian, settled in London and holding a general commission to learn the views of foreign countries; and Benjamin Franklin, who left America in November, reaching Paris before the close of the year.

General Charles Lee followed the retreating army so tardily that he was captured

THE MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE.

by a scouting party of the enemy at Basking Ridge, N. J. Stirling succeeded to his command, and joined Washington at Trenton. The entire force, numbering with re-enforcements about five thousand miserably equipped soldiers, crossed the Delaware just as Cornwallis, at the head of twenty-seven thousand well-armed and disciplined troops, entered the upper end of the town.

Many of those who had been foremost in defying England now lost heart and accepted the offers of protection made by Howe and the leading British generals. Even

the adjutant-general of the Continental army, Joseph Reed, was accused of having sought and obtained such protection. For long years after the close of the Revolution, a warm controversy raged over this question. The issue, however, was unfavorable to the friends of Reed, and the general belief was that the disgraceful charge against Washington's trusted and confidential friend had been proven. Thus the question stood until 1876, when William S. Stryker, adjutant-general of New Jersey, settled it for all time by the discovery that the officer who sought British protection was not the adjutant-general of the Continental army, but Colonel Charles Read of the Burlington militia.

It was bitter cold weather. The patriot soldiers were half-starved, ragged, and shivering, and when they hobbled over the ice and snow they left traces of blood from their bare feet. As they huddled about their camp fires, they could look across the surging masses of ice in the Delaware and see the twinkle of the lights in Trenton town, where Rall and his Hessians were holding high carnival. It was a pitiful contrast, and, when you remember that the patriots had met with nothing but disaster in other quarters, and that congress itself had fled in a panic from the capital of the country, you can readily understand why the early days of the winter of 1776 were the very darkest of the American Revolution.

It was at this awful crisis that Washington determined to turn and strike a blow that would infuse life into the expiring hopes of his army and his country. He resolved to recross the Delaware from Pennsylvania and fall upon the Hessians at Trenton; Colonel John Cadwalader was to take his troops over at Bristol, ten miles down the river, and General Ewing was to do the same directly opposite Trenton.

When Cadwalader approached the Delaware at Bristol, he found to his dismay that it could not be crossed. The river at that place is much wider than at Trenton, and has never been bridged.

Swiftly-moving masses of ice filled the river, and it piled along the shore in ridges so enormous that it was impossible to drag the artillery over them.

General Ewing also was baffled on reaching the river opposite Trenton. Thus the movements intended against the English and Hessian detachments at Bordentown, Burlington, and Mount Holly came to naught. But there was no failure on the part of Washington himself.

If any one of you should ever ride over the Belvidere Division of the Pennsylvania Railroad, which follows the course of the Delaware from Trenton to a point above Easton, you will notice about eight miles north of the capital a station which is named "Washington's Crossing." Looking directly across the river to Pennsylvania your eyes will rest on the village of Taylorsville, which is the place where General Washington and his troops came down to the stream on Christmas night, in 1776, and, carefully launching their flat boats, pushed out among the masses of ice toward the Jersey shore. There was no bridge at that time anywhere across the Delaware, and this place was known as McConkey's Ferry.

Washington had twenty-four hundred men and they were the best in the army, as were the officers associated with him. Among the latter were General Greene, who was

second in ability only to the commander-in-chief, Stirling, Sullivan, Stephen, who was associated with Washington in the French war, Stark, Mercer, St. Clair, and others whose names can never be forgotten by a grateful country.

I have talked with old men who remember seeing that band silently gather on the bank of the river that Christmas night so long ago. The snow and sleet were blown almost horizontally by the gale, and the river was so full of ice that it took most of the night to cross it. It was still dark, when, attracted by the twinkling lanterns, two boys approached the last of the soldiers who were leaving the Pennsylvania side. The lads, as you may suppose, were a little frightened on being hailed by the soldiers, but they received no harm, and in a few minutes the troops disappeared in the snowy darkness toward the Jersey shore. Knox's voice rang out in cheery tones as the artillery was dragged into the boats, and the silent spectators were awed by the imposing figure and stately mien of Washington, as he passed back and forth among his men, encouraging them by word and act.

Washington's intention was to attack the Hessians before daylight; but it had taken his soldiers so long to cross that it could not be done. Though a great advantage was thus lost, he had no thought of turning back. Too much was at stake.

It was about four o'clock when the Americans left the river bank and began their march toward Trenton. It was still snowing, was bitter cold, and the wind was blowing almost a gale. The patriots, however, set their teeth, and followed their brave leaders over the snow and ice.

The little village of Birmingham (called "Brummagen" by the people of the vicinity), stands back a short distance from the river, and had almost as many inhabitants a hundred years ago as it has to-day. When the Americans reached this place they divided, the column under Greene taking the Scotch road, which enters Trenton at the upper end of the city, over what is now the Pennington turnpike.

The other division, under Sullivan, kept to the river-road, running parallel to the course taken by Greene, and entered Trenton on the bank of the Delaware, at the lower end of the city. The plan was that these two divisions should reach the town at the same time, and open the attack on Rall and his Hessians.

Washington accompanied Greene with the brigades of Mercer, Stirling, Stephen, and De Fermoy, while Sullivan led those of St. Clair, Glover, and Sargeant. When the Continentals started on their silent tramp to Trenton, the storm was at their backs, and they marched with more ease and rapidity. Their guides were Colonel Joseph Phillips, Captain Philip Phillips, Lieutenant Elias Phillips, all of Lawrence; Joseph Inslee, John Muirhead, John Guild, Edon Burroughs, Stephen Burroughs, Ephraim Woolsey, Henry Simmonds, all of Hopewell township; and Captain John Mott (grandfather of the late Major-general Mott), David Lanning, Amos Scudder, and William Green, of Trenton. The descendants of these men are numerous to-day in that neighborhood.

It may seem strange to you that Washington should have selected the night following Christmas to attack the Hessians in Trenton, but he could not have fixed upon a better time. While he and his patriots were shivering with cold and hunger, he knew that Colonel Rall and his officers and men were enjoying themselves to the full in Tren-

ton, across the river. They would be sure to hold a jollification on Christmas, and would therefore be in poor condition to resist attack.

The house in which Colonel Rall spent that Christmas night was a brick building on the corner of Warren and State Streets. It was built a few years before the Revolution by the leading merchant, Abraham Hunt, who in one part of the house kept a store, while he lived with his family in the other portion. It was quite a large structure, and remained standing until the summer of 1885, when it was torn down to make room for the fine Masonic Hall that now occupies that site. Had it been left to itself it might have remained sound for another hundred years.

I have often stood in the room where Colonel Rall sat playing cards with Abraham Hunt that Christmas night, and pictured to myself the scene. They were enjoying themselves with their game, their hot rum and pipes, and cared nothing for the wintry wind that moaned outside, and drove the sand-like particles of snow against the window-panes. The logs in the fire-place burned all the more cheerily, and the yellow light which they threw across the floor filled the room with comfort and warmth.

Rall was deeply interested in the cards, when some one knocked at the door. Being admitted, the messenger stepped across the floor and handed a note to the Hessian. Rall wished to finish his game before reading it, and hastily pushed the paper into his pocket, while the visitor withdrew.

When that game was done, he had forgotten all about the note. He took another drink of hot spirits, puffed at his pipe, and with a laugh and jest continued playing.

Some treacherous enemy of our country had stealthily watched Washington and his patriots that night, as they silently gathered on the shore up the river, and, prowling around only long enough to learn their destination, had galloped in hot haste to Trenton to give Colonel Rall warning of his danger. The hoofs of his horse rang over the frozen road, and he drew up in front of the fine brick mansion, whose windows streamed cheerful light into the icy street. Washington and the Continentals were still miles away when the note brought by the Tory was carried to Rall, and by him thrust into his pocket and forgotten. Ah, if he had only read that letter!

The hours crept on, and still Rall and his host kept at their cards. The gale swept around the corners with a dismal moan, and the sleet and snowflakes beat against the window-panes. Sometimes the wind roared down the chimneys, but it only made the room the more comfortable by the contrast. The game, the pipes, the warmth, and the hot spirits caused the two men to forget the flight of time, and the gray light of the wintry morning found them still at the table.

Suddenly the players stopped, and gazed at each other with alarm and inquiry in their faces. Both had been startled by an indistinct sound like the firing of musketry. In a moment they heard it again. It was musketry-firing beyond all doubt, and was rapidly approaching the town. The Hessian pickets were falling back before the advance of the Continentals.

Washington had planned that the two divisions should reach Trenton and open the attack at the same time, and accordingly the first volley from the upper end of the town was answered by firing from the lower part by the forces under Sullivan.

ARREST OF GENERAL PRESCOTT.

Shortly after daylight Greene's advance guard, led by Captain William Washington, cousin of the commander-in-chief, came upon the Hessian outposts. The latter caught sight of the Americans, and had barely time to fire when the patriots were upon them. A young Hessian lieutenant dropped in the road, mortally wounded, and lay dying as the Continentals rushed by in hot pursuit of his companions in flight toward the town. One of the foremost pursuers was Lieutenant James Monroe, afterward president of the United States, and then less than nineteen years old.

The two leading streets of Trenton were King and Queen, now known as Greene and Warren, after the well-known patriot officers. Greene and his men drove in the pickets at the upper end of the town, while Sullivan, entering by the river bank, pressed up the slope toward his friends, thus catching the Hessians between two fires.

Colonel Rall, under the influence of liquor, ran to take command, and made the confusion worse. But he was not a coward, and bravely faced the danger. Two or three pieces of artillery were brought up, but were captured before they could be trained on the Americans, Lieutenant Monroe leading in the exploit. It is said that Washington himself directed the fire of six pieces down King Street, where the Hessians were forming, and scattered the enemy. Rall himself speedily received a mortal wound.

The suddenness of the attack, the fall of their leader, and the destructive work of the American cannon completed the panic of the Hessians. A large force fled in the direction of Princeton, but were headed off by Hand's riflemen, and, seeing no escape, threw down their arms and surrendered. Sullivan pressed his attack in the lower part of the town with equal vigor. A number of British troops and yagers dashed over the Assunpink bridge in the direction of Bordentown. The rest, finding themselves hemmed in, surrendered. Supported by two sergeants, Colonel Rall, suffering great pain, gave up his sword.

When Rall was carried and laid on his bed at his head-quarters, where St. Mary's Catholic Church now stands on Warren Street, he recalled the note handed to him the night before. Having read it, he sadly remarked that if he had done so when it was first placed in his hands he would not have been in that condition. General Washington called on him, and tenderly expressed his sorrow for him. He died, and is believed to have been buried in the grave-yard of the First Presbyterian Church, where half a century later his supposed remains were discovered.

We who are used to reading accounts of battles in more modern times, where the losses on each side amount to thousands and tens of thousands of lives, can not but be surprised to learn that at the battle of Trenton the Americans captured nine hundred and fifty prisoners, six guns, and a large number of small arms, besides killing about twenty and wounding four times as many; while on the part of the patriots there were only four wounded and two killed. The deaths of the latter have by some been attributed to the severe cold, rather than to the bullets of the Hessians.

The struggle at Trenton, however, can not be estimated by the number of lives lost, but by its effect on the war for independence. It marked the turning of the tide, and was like the bursting of sunlight upon darkness: it replaced despair with hope, and

though hardship, sorrow, and reverses were yet in store, the "hand on the dial" was nevermore to turn backward.

You will see that with Cornwallis so near, the situation of Washington and his little army was now highly dangerous. Before the sun set, therefore, he recrossed the river into Pennsylvania, with his captured prisoners and material. Donop, at Burlington, as soon as he learned what had been done, abandoned south Jersey. Cornwallis sent some troops to Trenton to reconnoiter, but, seeing nothing of the enemy, they rejoined him and he fell back to Princeton.

Washington waited three days in Pennsylvania and then crossed once more to Trenton. Cadwalader, at the same time, succeeded in bringing eighteen hundred Pennsylvania militia across the river from Bristol, and, with about the same number of men under General Mifflin, joined Washington at Trenton. The army itself was so inspirited by the recent success that fourteen hundred of the New England soldiers, whose terms of service were just expiring, willingly agreed to stay six weeks longer. The Continental army was thus increased to six thousand men.

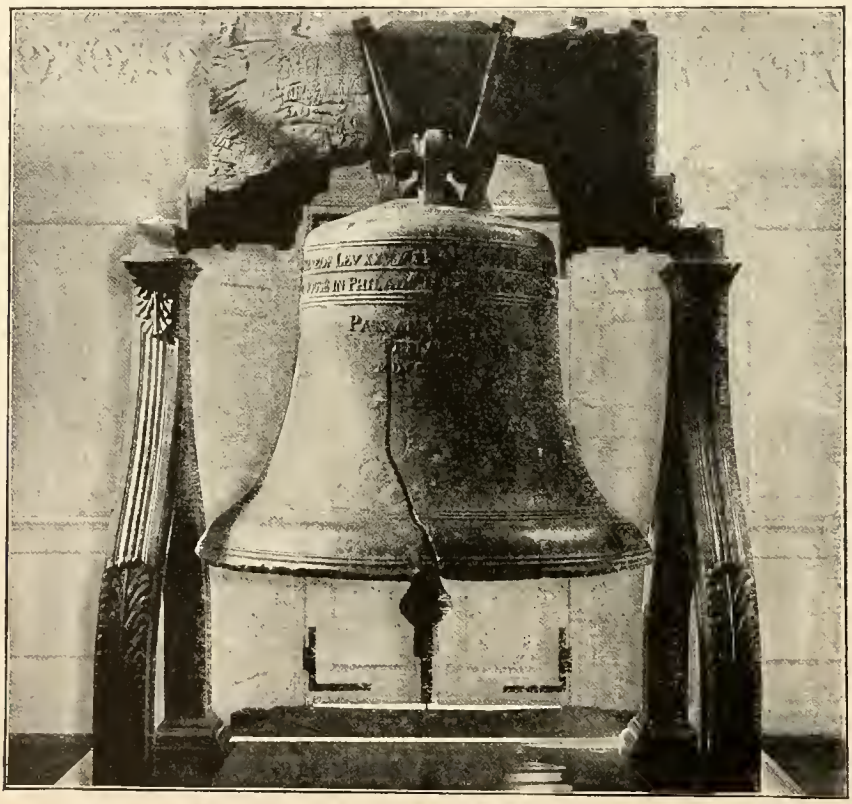
Robert Morris, the wealthy Philadelphian who did so much to provide funds for carrying on the war for independence, and to whom Washington had applied for money to pay his soldiers, collected fifty thousand dollars in specie and sent it to the American camp.

Thus, while Christmas, 1776, was the darkest day of the American Revolution, New Year's morning was one of the brightest of that long and memorable struggle.

CHAPTER V.

1777. THE CAMPAIGN IN NEW JERSEY.

CORNWALLIS was so fully convinced that the cause of the Americans was lost that a few days before the battle of Trenton he had made arrangements to visit England. That affair, however, caused him to postpone his voyage until matters should take a better shape.



LIBERTY BELL.

Learning from his scouts that Washington had returned to Trenton, Cornwallis determined to swoop down upon him and wipe out the disgrace of a few days before. With a force of seven thousand men he advanced upon the town, January 2, 1777.

DeFermoy was sent with Hand's and Hausegger's regiments to check his advance. The Americans fought well, but Hausegger was in such a hurry to surrender that there is little doubt of his having been a traitor. Greene was able to delay Cornwallis, so that he did not enter the upper part of Trenton till sunset.

The Assunpink Creek, which runs through the middle of Trenton into the Delaware, was then spanned by a wooden bridge. Washington drew up his army on the eastern bank, so as to cover the bridge and the different fords with his artillery. Cornwallis drove the American advance back through the town until the bridge was

HALL AT PHILADELPHIA IN WHICH THE FIRST CONGRESSES WERE HELD.

reached, when he found himself confronted by thirty pieces of cannon, which opened on him with such destructive effect that he was compelled to withdraw.

During the last half century, strenuous attempts have been made to prove that this battle (which took place on the 2d of January, 1777), was the real battle of

Trenton. But the fact remains that neither Cornwallis nor Washington ever reported any such important engagement. Knox, the federal chief of artillery, says that the cannon were served with "great vociferation and some execution," and no doubt the British loss was considerable.

There are citizens in Trenton to-day who remember hearing old men tell how the boom of the cannon made the windows rattle, and how, just as it was growing dark, they saw the flash of the guns on the banks of the Assunpink; but their accounts hardly warrant the belief that such a wholesale destruction of life took place as has been claimed.

The firing ceased shortly after night closed in, and Cornwallis and Washington encamped opposite each other, the creek flowing between. The situation of the American army was extremely critical. In the rear flowed the swift Delaware, filled with masses of floating ice, while in front was Cornwallis with a powerful army, awaiting daylight and confident of victory. True generalship demanded that Washington should maneuver so as to avoid a battle.

As soon as the pickets were posted and the bivouac fires kindled by the two armies, Washington called a council of war. He gave as his belief that Cornwallis had too many troops in Trenton to have many in the rear. He therefore favored a secret and rapid march to Princeton by a circuitous route, hoping also to push on to Brunswick, surprise the British rear-guard, and capture their stores before Cornwallis could come up with them.

All the officers favored the plan, and it was acted upon without delay. Washington sent the baggage down the river to Burlington, and about midnight the march was begun. Every possible precaution was taken to mask the movement. The camp fires were kept burning, and men were busy all night long digging intrenchments in plain sight of the enemy, while the guards were directed to stay at the bridge until daylight, when they were to make haste to join the main army.

The mud had frozen so that the roads were greatly improved, and the cannon were drawn forward without difficulty. From Trenton to Princeton by the regular stage road is about ten miles, but the roundabout course of Washington over the Quaker highway compelled a march of seventeen miles. The men were in high spirits, and just as day was breaking, the Continentals approached the little town of Princeton. The morning was clear and keen. Within twenty-four hours Washington and Cornwallis had exchanged positions. There had been three British regiments in Princeton, commanded by Colonel Mawhood, but two of them were now on their way to join Cornwallis at Trenton. Mawhood was a short distance out of Princeton on the road, and had crossed the bridge over Stony Brook when he caught sight of the Americans on the Quaker road, a half mile to his left. He could not understand what it meant, but, like a true soldier, he immediately wheeled about, recrossed the bridge, and moved toward the Americans.

The British colonel must have been astonished when he saw that the American army, which until then he had believed to be in Trenton, was before him. Nevertheless, he hurried to a position off the road, on a hill near the house and barn of a Quaker named

Clark. General Mercer of the Continentals saw the purpose of Mawhood, and with three hundred men ran him a race for the same refuge. Mercer reached it first, and posted his soldiers behind a fence. They coolly awaited the approach of the British, and when they were quite near poured a volley into them. The assailants immediately replied, the combatants being so close together that the smoke from their muskets floated upward in a single cloud.

You must bear in mind that Mawhood was a fine officer and that his command was splendidly disciplined. He was mounted on a pony, with a couple of favorite spaniels frolicking about him, and he went into the battle as though on parade. The fierce discharge of the Americans killed a number of his men, but, instead of falling back, or even halting, they charged upon the patriots at the fence. General Mercer and his officers strove desperately to hold their soldiers, but, having only a few muskets, they broke and fled. Mercer himself was knocked from his horse and surrounded by his enemies, who shouted to him to surrender. Instead of obeying, he struck out right and left with his sword, and was immediately bayoneted by half a dozen soldiers.

Among the other brave Americans killed were Colonel Haslet and Captains Fleming and Neal. Every published history, I believe, says that Colonel Potter was also slain, and Washington himself reported him killed; but this was a mistake. Adjutant-general Stryker, of New Jersey, whose authority can not be questioned, has proved that Potter was taken prisoner, and not even wounded.

Cadwalader's militia battalions, which had been sent to the support of Mercer, gave way before Mawhood's brigade. But the barn and stacks of hay in the vicinity sheltered enough artillery and marksmen to check the British until Washington, who was at the front, could rally his men. Spurring his horse among the disorganized troops at the imminent risk of his life, he succeeded, with the help of other officers, in reforming them and presenting a solid front to the enemy. He had previously sent a brigade of New England Continentals to assail the British right, while Hand's riflemen threatened the left.

Mawhood speedily found himself so hotly pressed that he was in danger of being surrounded. His men had fought with splendid bravery, but they now saw their hopeless situation, and, flinging aside their guns, they ran for life down the road, up the creek and across the fields, with the shouting Americans at their heels. This part of the enemy's force being scattered, the patriots marched toward Princeton. The other British regiments had posted themselves about the college buildings, but they were quickly driven out. Old Nassau Hall has witnessed many affrays since that time, but nothing to compare with the battle of January 3, 1777. One of the first cannon shots fired sent a ball crashing through a portrait of King George, which hung within the college building. The frame of the picture is still preserved, and now contains a painting of General Washington.

Washington found his men too much exhausted to press on to Brunswick, as he had hoped to do. He therefore withdrew to where the present town of Somerville stands, and went into camp. The British loss was about sixty killed and two hundred and fifty prisoners. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was less than half that of

the enemy. General Mercer, who was so dreadfully bayoneted, died two days later in the house to which he had been carried. Mercer County, within whose limits are Princeton and Trenton, was named for this brave officer.

When on that crisp, wintry morning Cornwallis at Trenton found that the American camp across the Assunpink was deserted, and his straining ear caught the boom of cannon in the direction of Princeton, he needed no one to explain what it meant: Washington had escaped from his grasp. Chagrined and wrathful, Cornwallis hurried to Princeton with all speed, reaching it just after the American army had left and was beyond reach. Not only Cornwallis himself, but his men, were exasperated over the manner in which they had been outwitted. They hurried after the Continentals, but finding the bridge destroyed at Kingston, turned back. The British then made their way to Brunswick, in order to protect the valuable stores that had been left there.

Washington now withdrew to Morristown, where he arrived on the 6th of January, and went into winter quarters. He stayed until May, recruiting his army and making forays upon the enemy.

Nothing can show the barbarity of the British in stronger light than the fact that of five thousand prisoners in their hands fifteen hundred perished; and many others returned to their friends so weakened by privation that they were unable to rally. Most of those confined on the prison-ships were American sailors. Our privateers were accustomed to parole their prisoners, and so had none to exchange for captured American sailors.

The principal prison-ships were the *Good Hope* (what a name!), anchored in the North River, and the *Scorpion*, *Falmouth*, *Stromboli*, *Hunter*, and afterward the *Jersey*, which lay in Wallabout Bay. The *Jersey* was probably the most infamous of all the floating prisons. It was an old, dismantled sixty-four-gun ship, anchored about a hundred yards from shore. The port-holes were closed and two tiers of openings, twenty inches square, were cut in her sides and crossed with iron bars. For a good while the prisoners numbered a thousand and more. They were crowded below like so many dying cattle, and underwent sufferings which it is impossible for you to imagine. A careful estimate of the number of deaths on board the prison-ships in Wallabout Bay makes the appalling total eleven thousand five hundred.

An exchange was finally agreed upon, and Howe sent to the American lines a horde of ragged, gaunt, and dying creatures, expecting to receive in return the same number of sleek, well-conditioned Hessians and Englishmen, with whom to continue the war.

Washington was so indignant when he looked upon the victims of British barbarity that he refused to release the same number of prisoners, as Howe demanded that he should do. He claimed that, although General Howe had kept the letter of his agreement, he had violated its spirit, and he charged him with deliberately disabling his prisoners. For such captives, sent to die or be nursed back to life by the patriots, Washington refused to return strong, able-bodied prisoners. The commander-in-chief enforced his views with such ability that Howe was obliged to admit their truth. He asserted that the Americans had received the same food and general treatment given his own soldiers, but naïvely confessed that he could not understand how it was so many

THE PRISON SHIP "JERSEY."

died. Washington finally compelled an exchange on something like equitable principles.

When the Continentals were on their retreat through New Jersey in the early winter of 1776, they were looked upon almost as invaders by the inhabitants. On most of the houses along the roads were seen pieces of red rags nailed against the doors, as the sign of loyalty to the crown. These were soon torn down, however, the cruelty of the British and Hessians exasperating every body into patriotism.

The American army began to assume a distinctive power and character. The provisions made by congress were so far as possible enforced, though several states never

HOUSE AT PRINCETON, N. J., WHERE GENERAL MERCER DIED.

raised the whole number of troops called for. When Washington left Morristown, he gathered an army numbering over seven thousand. His forces were divided into ten brigades, commanded by Generals Conway, De Haas, Berre, Maxwell, Muhlenburg, Scott, Smallwood, Wayne, Weedon, and Woodford.

The Americans gained much benefit from their daring privateers. The king of France hesitated to recognize the independence of the colonies, but showed his good will by ordering the payment to them of two million livres in quarterly installments.

In April, with a force of two thousand men, Ex-Governor Tryon, of New York, a bitter royalist, made an incursion into Connecticut. He destroyed sixteen hundred tents and stores at Danbury and did much damage, losing only forty of his men, the loss of the Americans being twice as great. Some weeks later Colonel Return J. Meigs,

with a small force of Continentals, made a descent on Sag Harbor, destroyed a large quantity of stores and returned to his quarters at New Haven without loss.

Washington, who had spent the winter months in re-organizing his army, left his quarters at Morristown on the 28th of May and took position at Middlebrook, ten miles from Brunswick, on the Raritan River. He believed that Howe was making ready for an advance on Philadelphia, and determined to be ready to combat such a movement.

The British had made at Brunswick a sort of bridge that could be laid on flat-bottomed boats, and the Americans believed it was the design of the enemy to take it to the Delaware for use in crossing that river.

On the 13th of June the British forces, under the direction of Howe himself, marched from Brunswick, and formed a line extending several miles into the country. Their right rested on the fortified position just given up, and they were shielded in front by the Raritan, and on the left by the Millstone. The hostile forces were now within cannon shot of each other, and Howe, who had much the superior army, maneuvered with a view of compelling Washington to give battle. The former had received re-enforcements only a short time before, so that he had fully four times as many well-equipped soldiers at his call as had Washington. The latter, therefore, was too wise to give his enemy any further advantage, and so parried every artifice to draw him from his strong position that Howe became tired out, and fell back on Brunswick, devastating the country right and left. General Greene with three regiments assailed the British rear, doing much damage. Washington followed with the main body of his army to Quibbletown (now New Market), when Howe, suddenly facing about, advanced from Amboy to Westfield, on the north of the Raritan, intending to turn the American left, gain possession of the passes in the highlands, and thus drive Washington from the strong position he had so long held. Cornwallis forced back the command of Lord Stirling and captured three cannon and two hundred prisoners, but Washington was too alert to be flanked, and withdrew to the highlands, where the British commander was afraid to attack him.

The British Major-general Prescott, in command of the royal forces in Rhode Island, had his head-quarters midway between Newport and Bristol Ferry. At midnight of July 20th, he was aroused from sleep by Colonel Barton, who with a torch in one hand and a leveled pistol in the other, and accompanied by several armed men, burst into his apartment. Without time to dress, the captured general was hurried on board a vessel and taken to Providence. Colonel Barton with forty men had passed through the British fleet without discovery. Congress was so pleased with Barton's exploit that it gave him a sword and a tract of land in Vermont.

It was at this time that a number of foreign officers joined the American army, one of whom, the Marquis de Lafayette, must be held in grateful reverence by the American people, so long as our republic lasts. This gallant Frenchman was at this time only nineteen years old. While stationed at Metz, as a captain of dragoons, his heart had been fired by glowing accounts of the struggle of the Americans for liberty. Although married, wealthy, and of noble family, with splendid prospects, he left all to help strangers on the other side of the Atlantic in their struggle for independence.

THE ATTACK ON CHEW'S HOUSE.

CHAPTER VI.

1777. THE FALL OF PHILADELPHIA AND THE CAMPAIGN IN THE NORTH.

THE British, having been driven out of New Jersey, formed the plan of taking possession of Philadelphia by an approach by way of Chesapeake Bay. In August, Sir William Howe sailed from New York with sixteen thousand men, and on the 24th reached the head of Elk River, in Maryland, from which point his army marched in two columns upon Philadelphia. On the 11th of September the American army on the Brandywine was defeated with considerable loss. Lafayette was among the severely wounded. Washington entered Philadelphia the following day. On the 19th the patriots crossed the Schuylkill, and posted themselves on the eastern bank of the river. Detachments were placed at the several fords where the enemy were likely to cross.

General Anthony Wayne with fifteen hundred men was concealed in the woods. His purpose was to assail the rear of the invading army, but his presence was revealed to the British, who on the night of the 20th furiously attacked him and killed about three hundred men. This event is known in history as the Paoli Massacre.

Having secured the command of the Schuylkill, Howe crossed with his whole army. He advanced to Germantown, and on the 27th took peaceable possession of Philadelphia. The American army, re-enforced to eleven thousand men, established themselves on the east side of the Schuylkill, some eighteen miles from Germantown. The main body of the British army was at the latter place. While Howe was engaged in reducing the forts on the Delaware, so as to open a passage for his fleet, Washington attempted to surprise the army at Germantown. The stubborn resistance met at the "Chew House" delayed the advance of the Americans and gave the British time to rally. The patriots were defeated with the loss of about twelve hundred men. The campaign in Pennsylvania ended soon afterward, and Washington retired to winter quarters at Valley Forge, and the British to Philadelphia. Forts Mifflin and Mercer in the month of November fell into the possession of the British.

We must not forget that the United States at this time were making political as well as military history. The war, which had opened in Massachusetts, had rolled away from that state toward the south. Congress, at the little town of York, beyond the Susquehanna, was busy dealing with the important questions on which depended the welfare of the country. On the 15th of November congress adopted the Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union.

These were ratified at various times, and not fully completed until March, 1781. Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia and North Carolina adopted state constitutions in 1776; New York, South Carolina and Georgia in

1777; Massachusetts in 1780, and New Hampshire in 1781. Connecticut clung to her royal charters until 1818, and it took a rebellion in Rhode Island to annul in 1842 the patent that she had obtained two hundred years before from the king of England.

HERKIMER MORTALLY WOUNDED.

A good deal of discussion was held in the states on the question whether or not there should be a second state legislative chamber. All agreed to it from the first except Pennsylvania and Georgia, and they, after testing the single chamber, adopted the plan that prevailed in all the other states.

One of the chief objects of the campaign of the British in 1777 was to open free communication between New York and Canada, hoping thereby to cut off New England from the other states and compel her submission.

An army of more than seven thousand British and Hessian troops, exclusive of a corps of artillery, was placed under the command of Lieutenant-general John Burgoyne, who was to march from Canada by way of Lake Champlain to Albany, there to unite with the royal troops that were to be sent thither from New York. While encamped at Crown Point, he met his Indian allies and gave them a grand war-feast, intended to rouse their courage, but at the same time soften their ferocity—something which is impossible with that race.

Burgoyne in hiring such barbarous allies stirred the anger of the patriots, who knew too well the fierce cruelty of the red-men. The history of the frontier is crimsoned with their deeds, and one of the most dreadful occurrences of the times was due to Burgoyne's employment of the Indians. Miss Jane McCrea, a beautiful young lady who was soon to be married to a British officer, was one of the earliest victims of the savages.

Conflicting accounts have been given of the manner in which this young lady was killed. The most reliable is that General Arnold sent twenty men to escort to Fort Edward the family of Mrs. McNeal, where Miss McCrea was staying. This escort was drawn by hostile Indians into an ambuscade and twelve men killed, including Lieutenant Palmer who was in command. Thereupon the Indians hurried to the house, seized Mrs. McNeal and Miss McCrea, placed them on horses and fled. The soldiers, however, were quick enough to fire one volley with the sad result of killing Miss McCrea on her horse. Mrs. McNeal was carried into the British camp, and the savage who had torn the luxuriant raven tresses of Miss McCrea from her head, showed his trophy at Burgoyne's head-quarters. General Gates sent an angry protest to Burgoyne, whom he held directly responsible for the murder.

Besides the main army, another body of British troops under Colonel St. Leger, with a large force of Indians and a regiment of New York Tories, were to go up the St. Lawrence to Lake Ontario, and from that quarter march toward Albany by way of the Mohawk River. Before the campaign opened, the British sent two expeditions to destroy the military stores at Peekskill and Danbury. At the former place they captured a large amount of provisions, forage and other property. At Danbury they destroyed eighteen houses and much valuable stores.

Upon the advance of the British the Americans abandoned Fort Ticonderoga, and the enemy occupied it. A few days later, a detachment of the British army defeated a smaller force of Americans, who lost about a thousand men. On the 30th of July Burgoyne reached Fort Edward, and General Schuyler crossed the Hudson and took position at Saratoga.

Meanwhile St. Leger had gone up the St. Lawrence and reached Lake Ontario. With a force of eighteen hundred men he invested Fort Schuyler, at the head of the Mohawk River. The garrison numbered about six hundred. When the advance of the enemy became known, General Nicholas Herkimer, a brave and skillful officer, collected the American militia of the neighborhood for the relief of the garrison. Learning of their approach, St. Leger sent a strong detachment of regulars and Indians to ambuscade him. Herkimer fell into the trap, and at the first volley of the enemy was mortally wounded; but propped against the saddle of his dead horse, and smoking

his pipe, he gave his orders with as much coolness as if on parade. A diversion was made by a force from the garrison, and the British and Indians fled.

St. Leger, however, pressed the siege, and Benedict Arnold was sent with a brigade of troops to attack him. Finding his force much inferior to that of the enemy, he resorted to an ingenious stratagem. A spy was dispatched into the British camp, where he told such an alarming story of the strength of the army that the Indians fled, and St. Leger made haste to Montreal, leaving behind him his tents and most of his military stores.

About this time Burgoyne sent six hundred Hessian troops, and soon afterward another force of five hundred men, to Bennington to seize a lot of provisions, of which the army stood in sore need. On the 16th of August these forces were routed with heavy loss by General Stark, who was on his way with sixteen hundred recruits to join the northern army.

Burgoyne managed to get together about a month's provisions, and crossed the Hudson on the 13th and 14th of September by means of a bridge of boats. General Gates, who had been lately appointed to the command of the northern department of the army, marched toward the enemy and encamped three miles above Stillwater. Burgoyne, on the night of the 17th, was within four miles of the patriot army, and two days later advanced against it. A battle followed in which the loss on each side was about six hundred men.

The two armies lay for some time in sight of each other, the British growing weaker each day by the desertions of the Indians, while the American army continually received re-enforcements. Burgoyne's provisions were scant, and his means of getting more cut off, so that he was threatened with starvation. Besides, he received no news of the promised diversion in his favor by Clinton from New York. He therefore prepared to retreat to the lakes by driving out the Americans from their position on the left. In the attempt he was defeated, with the loss of several hundred men, including some of his best officers, besides nine pieces of artillery and the encampment of a Hessian brigade with all their equipage.

General Gates posted fifteen hundred men on Bemis Heights, opposite the ford in Saratoga, two thousand in the rear to cut off any retreat to Fort Edward, and fifteen hundred at a fort higher up.

You will readily understand the desperate straits of Burgoyne. He was almost surrounded, his supplies were running out, and his men continually deserting, while re-enforcements arrived almost hourly for the Americans. The British leader called a council of war in which it was unanimously agreed to enter into a convention with General Gates.

On the forenoon of October 17, 1777, General Burgoyne surrendered his army to General Gates, his Indian allies having long before deserted him. Five thousand seven hundred and sixty-three officers and men thus became prisoners of war, among whom were six members of the British parliament. The trophies included a splendid train of brass artillery consisting of forty-two pieces, five thousand muskets, and an enormous quantity of ammunition and stores. General Gates and his soldiers showed the kindest consideration for the prisoners, and conquerors and conquered mingled together, smok-

ing, chatting and jesting over the dreadful scenes through which they had so lately passed. The Americans freely divided their scanty stores, and captor and captive drank from the same canteen.

The terms of the capitulation were unusually favorable to the British, who in fact were themselves permitted to prescribe the conditions of surrender. The troops were to be conducted to Boston, whence they were to return to England. The officers were to retain their horses, carriages and baggage, which were to be free from search or molestation. Burgoyne, however, asserted on his honor that no public stores would be secreted or removed.

You can imagine the dismay in England when news of the surrender reached that country. People are excitable during war times, and the English had such high hopes of this invasion that at first they were almost speechless with chagrin and anger. General Burgoyne was denounced by every one. When he returned to England the following year the king refused to see him, and he was even denied a court-martial. It was several years before full justice was done him.

The surrender of Burgoyne was the most complete triumph thus far gained by the patriots in their struggle for independence. The victory at Lexington had simply nerved them to enter upon the great struggle, and later on, when in the depths of despair, the victory at Trenton again kindled hope. But when, at Saratoga, in the autumn days of 1777, a powerful British army was captured, all Europe was at last convinced that the thirteen struggling colonies were likely to win in their revolt against Great Britain.

CHAPTER VII.

1777–78. VALLEY FORGE AND PHILADELPHIA—ALLIANCE WITH FRANCE—THE BRITISH RETREAT TO NEW YORK.

YOU will bear in mind that while the skies were so bright in the north, they were gloomy in the south. The Continental army there was much weaker than that of the invaders, and was continually driven back, until at last Philadelphia had fallen, and Washington and his ragged patriots had gone into winter quarters at Valley Forge, twenty miles from Philadelphia. While they shivered and nearly starved, the twenty thousand English and Hessian soldiers in Philadelphia feasted and rioted in the height of enjoyment. It was a gloomy contrast indeed, and it must stir every heart to think what our forefathers suffered for us.

Let us take a look at Valley Forge in the middle of that terrible winter of 1777–78. The march thither from White Marsh was made in the middle of December. Thousands of the men were without shoes or stockings, and the snow was marked with their bloody footprints. The camp was laid out in streets of log cabins, the quarters of the officers being opposite their respective regiments and companies. The position was a strong one, being protected by the river and hills, while entrenchments and redoubts were added. Morgan and his riflemen were stationed in advance of the lines, and full precautions were taken against surprise.

The huts were fourteen by sixteen feet, and each was occupied by twelve privates. Few had any thing in the way of bedding, and many could not obtain even straw. They simply huddled together on the bare floor, catching what they could of the heat given out by the fire, and counting even on the mutual warmth of their bodies. When the wintry wind moaned through the crevices of their huts and the fine snow sifted in through the logs, they nestled close to each other, with chattering teeth and shivering bodies, wondering whether on the morrow there would remain any food for them.

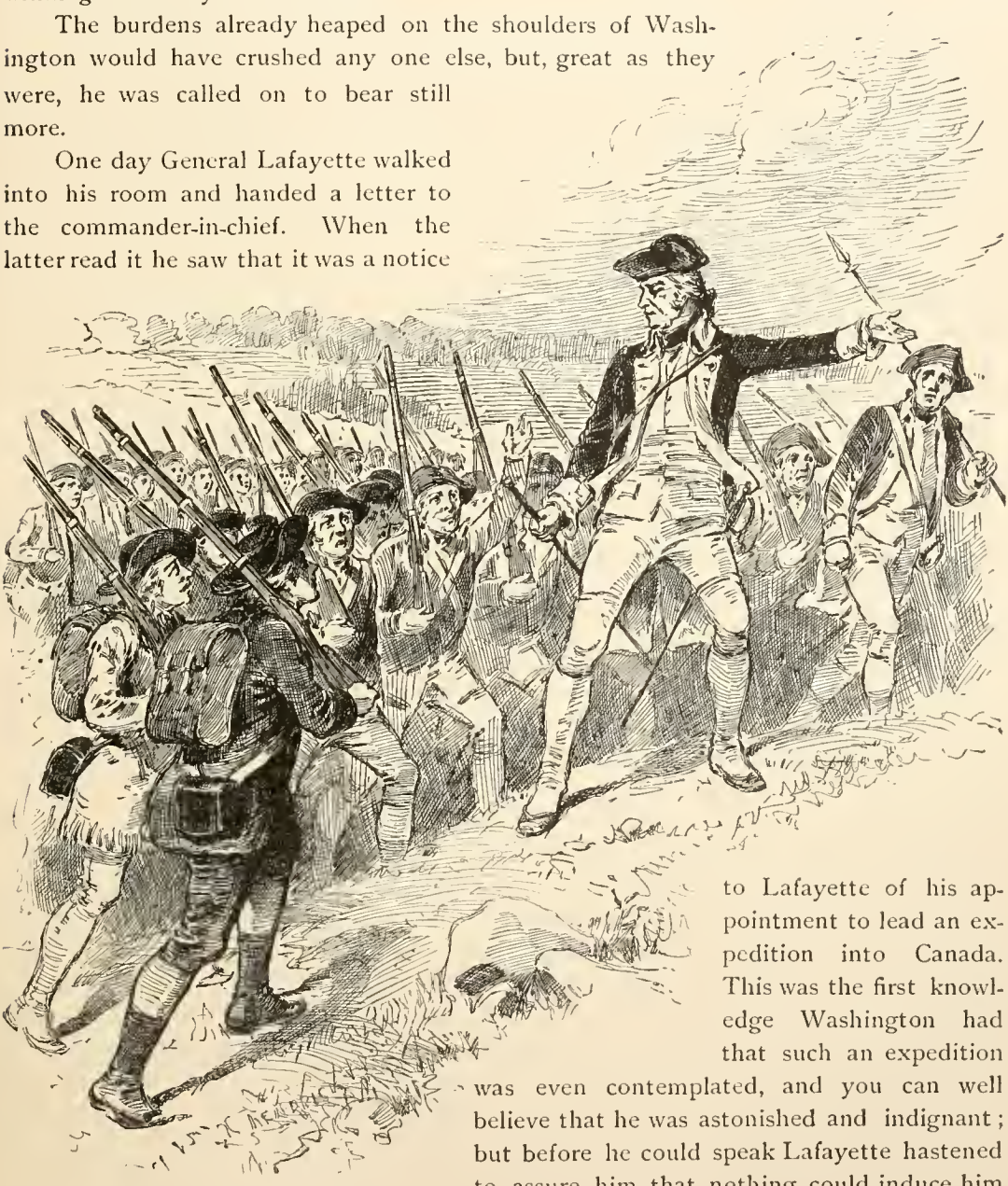
The winter was unusually severe, and as the dismal days dragged by it looked as if the men would have to disperse as the only way of saving their lives. It is said that during those woful times Isaac Potts, returning through the woods to his home, overheard a voice as of some one in supplication. Peering among the trees he saw the commander-in-chief on his knees in fervent prayer for his country and army. The farmer stole away unnoticed, and on reaching home assured his wife that he no longer doubted the success of the Americans, since he had overheard Washington praying for it.

Such is the story, which perhaps has a basis of truth, as it is known that Washington was a devout man; but Isaac Potts could not have been in sympathy with the

farmers around him, or he would not have believed there was a possibility of the "rebels" winning under any circumstances.

The burdens already heaped on the shoulders of Washington would have crushed any one else, but, great as they were, he was called on to bear still more.

One day General Lafayette walked into his room and handed a letter to the commander-in-chief. When the latter read it he saw that it was a notice to Lafayette of his appointment to lead an expedition into Canada. This was the first knowledge Washington had that such an expedition was even contemplated, and you can well believe that he was astonished and indignant; but before he could speak Lafayette hastened to assure him that nothing could induce him to accept such a command, and that he should look upon such acceptance as a betrayal of his friend. One of the noblest characteristics of Lafayette was his unselfish devotion to Washington.



STARK'S ADDRESS TO THE TROOPS.

After reading more calmly the letter placed in his hands by Lafayette, Washington persuaded him to accept the command. Lafayette did so, and started for Albany

to take charge of the expedition, but the scheme was never carried out and the marquis came back to his chief.

In the autumn of 1777 General Gates received a gold medal for his capture of Burgoyne, and was made president of the new board of war. General Mifflin was one of its members, as was also an Irishman named Conway, who boasted of having had thirty years' military experience. He was one of the officers sent over from France by Silas Deane, and congress had made him a brigadier-general. Washington was so distrustful of Conway that he protested against his promotion, but he was nevertheless passed over his seniors and became major-general, and then inspector-general.

This man insisted that all the disasters to the American arms were due to the incapacity of Washington, and that there was no prospect of success unless he was displaced by some competent officer. In fact, a plot was formed to supersede Washington, the active spirits in which were Conway, Gates, Mifflin and General Charles Lee, who had by this time been exchanged. The plot is known in history as the "Conway Cabal," and its object was to place General Gates in supreme command of the army — an officer who in ability, patriotism and statesmanship was not to be thought of for a moment by the side of the illustrious Father of his Country.

Such an infamous scheme as the displacement of Washington was necessarily intrusted to a large number, and in this way it became known. Henry Laurens, who had succeeded John Hancock as president of congress, was a warm friend of Washington and let him know every thing that was going on. Wilkinson saw some of the letters passing between Gates, Mifflin and Conway reflecting on Washington, and repeated their substance to Lord Stirling. When Gates learned of Wilkinson's indiscretion he demanded with considerable bluster that Washington should tell him who had tampered with his letters. Finally he denied that Conway had written any such letter as was quoted.

The commander-in-chief maintained his dignity through the whole conspiracy, and it soon collapsed. The grand character of Washington was too dearly prized by the American nation to permit any such injustice being done him. Not only did the "Conway Cabal" end in discomfiture, but the chief actors were punished in the course of events that followed. Gates and Mifflin were obliged to give up their places as members of the board of war. Mifflin was brought to trial for mismanagement of the quartermaster's department. Downright dishonesty was not proved against him, but it was shown that he lacked capacity. Gates was ordered to take charge of the fortifications on the Hudson; Lee was brought before a court-martial, as will be told in another place, and Conway, being accused by General Cadwalader of cowardice at the battle of the Brandywine, sent a challenge to that officer which was promptly accepted. Conway was badly wounded, and believing that he was dying wrote a letter to General Washington, in which he expressed the highest admiration for his virtue and goodness.

There came to the gaunt, famishing army at Valley Forge a man whose arrival marked an epoch in the prowess of American arms. This personage was Baron Frederick William von Steuben, a man two years older than Washington. He was born in a Prussian fortress, passed his childhood among soldiers, and became one himself

when only fourteen years of age. He fought bravely on some of the most famous battle-fields of Europe.

Baron Steuben was appointed inspector-general in place of Conway. He threw his whole soul into the work, and his experience and ability were invaluable in training the soldiers for the battles that yet remained to be fought. He possessed a frame of iron, and never spared himself. He had also a fiery temper and berated the troops continually, but they liked him none the worse, knowing that he was actuated only by the wish to make good soldiers of them. But the men could not help smiling when, having exhausted his own limited store of English abuse, he would turn to his lieutenant and beg him as a favor to swear at the awkward fellows.

I have not yet told you of the vast good that flowed from the surrender of Burgoyne. You know that the king of France was very friendly to the United States, and had given them a great deal of secret help. He wanted to help them openly, but dared not take the step until the Americans should gain some great victory, which would justify him before other nations in saying that we had gained a right to recognition. The capture of Burgoyne gave France the excuse she wanted.

You remember that four months before the Declaration of Independence Silas Deane, of Connecticut, was appointed a commissioner to France. His business at the French court was to act as the commercial and political agent of the colonies. It was through his efforts that the ship that brought Baron Steuben brought also two hundred thousand dollars' worth of arms, ammunition and specie to our shores.

Arthur Lee and Benjamin Franklin joined Deane in Paris, and united their efforts with his in the interest of their native country. I must tell you in this place something about Franklin, one of the brightest names in the history of America. You have heard something of what he had already done, but perhaps you do not know that when, in his beautiful flowing hand, he signed the Declaration of Independence, he was already an old man, having passed the age of three score and ten.

Franklin was born in Boston, January 17, 1706. His father made soap and candles, and intended his boy to follow the same business. The latter disliked it, however, and when twelve years old was apprenticed to his brother to learn the printer's trade, but soon ran away to New York. Finding no work there, he made his way in 1723 to Philadelphia. There he entered a printing-office, and in time became famous throughout the country. He read, studied, and stored his brilliant mind with useful knowledge. He founded the first circulating library in America; edited *Poor Richard's Almanac*, which was a perfect storehouse of philosophy and common sense; originated the American Philosophical Society; discovered that electricity and lightning are the same; became renowned in both hemispheres, and was one of the founders of American independence.

No ambassador could have been more popular than was Franklin at the court of France. The fame of his wisdom and achievements had gone before him, and the people were already friendly to America, in whose interest he came. The old philosopher dressed very plainly and neatly, was genial and witty, but at that time knew so little of the French language that he made many amusing mistakes. Once, when listening to

an address, Franklin made up his mind that his safest course was to applaud whenever those around him did so, and accordingly joined with great vigor and tried to look as though he understood every word spoken. He was afterward mortified to

AMERICAN MARKSMAN IN A TREE.

learn that the passages he had cheered were those which were complimentary to himself.

From what I have told you, it will be understood that Franklin was a great power at the court of France. He was not only witty and wise, but he was shrewd beyond any of those around him. When the news of Burgoyne's surrender reached that country, Franklin saw that the golden opportunity had come. He urged the claims of America with such tact and power that the king threw aside all hesitation, and in the

beginning of winter announced his intention of forming a treaty of alliance with the colonies. The treaty was concluded February 6, 1778. By it France acknowledged the independence of the United States and formed relations of reciprocal friendship with our country. It was agreed that they should make common cause, and that neither should treat with Great Britain for peace without the consent of the other. Thus the first treaty (and one of the most important ever made), between the United States and a foreign nation was drawn by Benjamin Franklin.

SURRENDER OF BURGOYNE.

Two nations were stirred to the profoundest depths by the news. England was incensed to the fighting point, while the United States was delighted. The news reached this country in April, and congress ratified the treaty on the 2d of May. England had been forewarned of the treaty, and had done all she could to prevent it. The government opposition in parliament tried in vain to arrange matters with the Americans so as to avert the French alliance. In the month of March, parliament passed two conciliatory bills, which gave to the Americans all that they had at first asked: it yielded the right to tax them, and by the appointment of commissioners to treat with it recognized congress as a representative body. Only one concession was lacking: parliament did not acknowledge the independence of the United States.

Had England gone as far as this at the beginning of the war the Americans would have laid down their arms, and gladly returned to their allegiance; but independence was now too plainly in sight for them to stop short of it. Moreover, as you know, they had agreed with France to make no treaty with England without the consent of their ally, and you may be sure that France, having taken such a bold step, would not now draw back.

English commissioners with proposals of peace arrived in Philadelphia in June, 1778. They at once presented their credentials, and congress appointed the next day in which to hear what they had to say. They delivered their message in full, and in return were rebuffed. The Americans resented the reflections cast upon their ally the king of France, and told the commissioners that there was but one way in which the war could be stopped: that was by the withdrawal of the British armies and the acknowledgment of the independence of the United States.

The commissioners then tried intrigue and bribery, but were again repelled, and so the scheme of Lord North for securing peace while retaining the colonies came to naught.

Meanwhile the British army was holding high revel in Philadelphia. Abundantly supplied with gold, they bought freely the choicest of the land. They drank and caroused, and were guilty of the most flagrant immorality and excesses.

The British army occupied the capital from September, 1777, until the following June. The fleet of Admiral Howe lay in the Delaware. The peace commissioners brought with them an order for the removal of the army to New York, the purpose being to concentrate the British forces, which, as you will recall, were somewhat scattered. General Howe, who had held the chief command so long, was superseded by Sir Henry Clinton. News that a French fleet had already sailed for this country to help the Americans hastened the departure of the British army from Philadelphia.

While Washington was at Valley Forge congress decided that the army should consist of forty thousand foot, besides artillery and horse. It was found in May that the forces, including those on the Hudson and in other places, scarcely amounted to fifteen thousand, the number at Washington's head-quarters being nearly twelve thousand. At the same time there were thirty thousand British troops in New York and Philadelphia, and thirty-seven hundred in Rhode Island, so you may see how much superior in point of numbers the invaders were.

The withdrawal of the English army from Philadelphia was due not only to their wish to concentrate the forces, but to the prospect of a war with France. The British government had determined to make a descent on some of the French West India Islands. With this end in view, five thousand troops were to be detached from the army, three thousand sent to Florida and the rest to New York.

The transports were too few to carry the whole army to New York by water. Clinton, therefore, shipped such as he could (including a number of loyalists who were afraid to stay and some Hessians who he thought would desert on the march), and sent the rest overland through New Jersey. The movement was attended with much risk, for Washington was so close at hand that his vanguard marched into Philadelphia on the same day — June 18th — that the British rear-guard passed out. Detachments had also been sent some days previous to take up positions on the road over which it was expected Clinton would pass, and to harass him to the utmost.

The main army of Americans crossed the Delaware at Coryell's Ferry (now Lambertville), fifteen miles above Trenton, on the 20th and 21st of June, marching by way of Hopewell, Rocky Hill, Kingston and Cranbury. The British army, with its artillery, wagons and horses formed a line nearly twelve miles long. As all the bridges had been destroyed by the Americans, much delay was caused. At Allentown, Clinton found it necessary to change his route, as Washington was almost in his front. He had hoped to reach the Raritan and to embark his troops at Brunswick or South Amboy for New York, but he now turned to the right and took the road leading to Monmouth and Sandy Hook. The heat was excessive and scores of men in both armies sank by the wayside.

Washington sent forward Lafayette, and afterward General Lee, with a strong force to attack whenever an opening presented itself, while he at a distance of half a dozen miles, held his main body in readiness to advance to their support.

On the 28th of June, Clinton, who had placed his baggage train in front and his best troops at the rear, was encamped near Monmouth Court House. Washington was strongly in favor of attacking him while on his march, but Lee and several of his officers opposed it. Lee had command of five thousand men, not counting Dickinson's New Jersey militia and Morgan's riflemen, who were directed to threaten the right flank of the enemy.

On the afternoon of the 27th, Inspector-general Steuben had made a careful reconnoissance and discovered the strong position of the enemy. That night the two armies lay five miles apart, the advance corps of the Americans being at Englishtown. Washington asked Lee to agree upon some plan of action with his officers, but Lee replied that he must be governed by circumstances. During the night he moved several hundred of his men nearer the enemy. He had been ordered to make an attack in the morning, as soon as it should be seen that the British were moving.

The days were the longest and hottest of the season. It had scarcely begun to grow light in the east when Washington was notified that Clinton was on the march toward New York. Knyphausen, the Hessian general, was with the baggage train and its convoy, while Clinton and his best troops followed at eight o'clock. Washington

sent orders to Lee to advance at once and make an attack, unless he saw urgent reasons to the contrary. At the same time Washington himself pushed on with all speed to his support.

Lafayette, being the junior of Lee, had yielded the command to him and was eager to bring on the battle at once. He urged a movement which Lee considered imprudent, and the latter (perhaps with something of the hatred which many Englishmen feel for the French), replied that the marquis evidently did not know what British soldiers were.

General Dickinson's militia opened the battle before eight o'clock. Thinking he was confronted by the British army (when it was only a small flanking party), Dickinson sent for aid and soon afterward the enemy fell back. Confusing reports were carried to Lee, and as a result there was much uncertainty as to the movements of the enemy. Fully an hour passed before it became known that the British were retreating in the direction of Middletown. Thus it was that the chance of striking their left flank, as Washington had intended, was lost.

The next collision was between Colonel Butler and some of the enemy's cavalry, who were driven through the village. Colonel Butler followed with his regiment and some pieces of artillery, taking position on a slight eminence, where he waited for the other brigades. While there he was charged by the British light dragoons, who were driven back. Notwithstanding the confusion, every thing looked well for the Americans.

At this critical juncture, Lee sent orders to Wayne to move to the right and capture the British rear guard. The other officers, who were without any orders at all, supposed that this movement was a retreat, for the enemy was advancing as if to threaten their communication with Wayne. They too began to fall back and had abandoned their positions before orders reached them from Lee to hold fast. It was near noon, and the whole division was in retreat, seeing which the British turned back in strong force. Lee waited until all the men were safely over a ravine, when he started to follow them.

But Washington now reached the spot and took command of the retreating division. His presence arrested the flight and filled the soldiers with renewed confidence. He placed the regiments of Colonels Stewart of Pennsylvania and Ramsey of Maryland with two guns on one side of the road, while on the other side were posted Wayne's gallant troops, and the artillery under Oswald. Between these passed the broken regiments to re-form beyond, for although retreating the troops were not panic stricken.

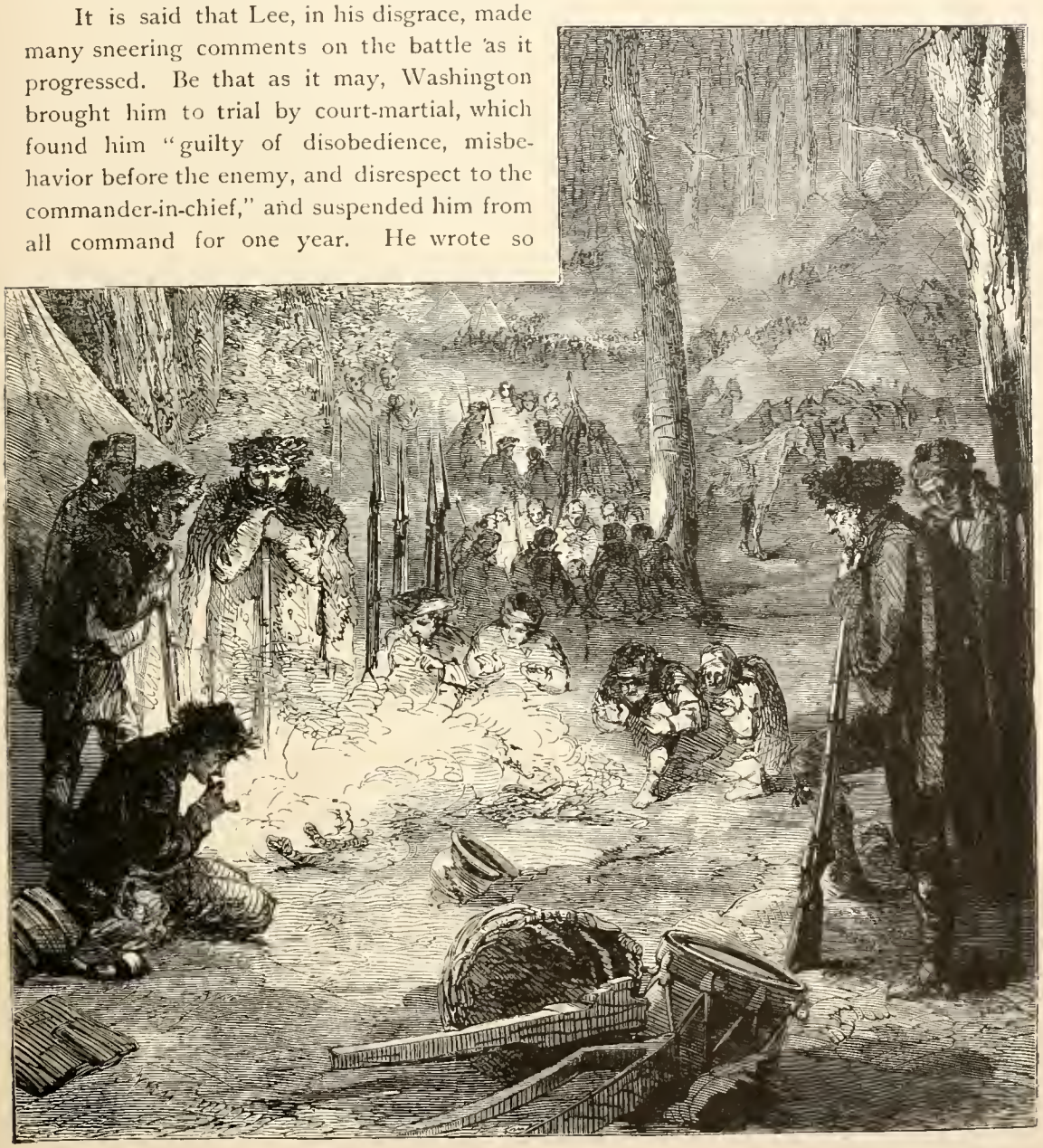
With the last of the retreating troops came General Lee, who was thus brought face to face with Washington. The commander-in-chief was flaming with indignation. The instant he caught sight of the startled Lee he thundered out:

"What is the meaning of this? Why this disorder and retreat?"

The tradition is that Washington was so infuriated by the gross incompetency — if nothing worse — of Lee that he cursed him roundly. Lafayette saw the meeting, and said when questioned about it that it was not so much the words as the manner of Washington that was terrible. Lee was staggered and confused, for he deserved the fierce condemnation launched against him. He attempted some excuse and offered to

take charge of the troops and bring them to the front, but Washington ordered him to the rear, which, under the circumstances, was the proper place for him.

It is said that Lee, in his disgrace, made many sneering comments on the battle as it progressed. Be that as it may, Washington brought him to trial by court-martial, which found him "guilty of disobedience, misbehavior before the enemy, and disrespect to the commander-in-chief," and suspended him from all command for one year. He wrote so



WASHINGTON'S CAMP AT VALLEY FORGE.

impertinent a letter to congress that that body dismissed him from the service. He withdrew to a plantation, where he spent his time with his books and dogs; but wearying of the life, he visited Baltimore and Philadelphia in 1782 for the

purpose of selling his estate. He was attacked with fever in Philadelphia, and died after a brief illness.

There is scarcely any doubt that General Charles Lee was a traitor to the American cause. He was not such a traitor as Benedict Arnold, whose patriotism was changed to a consuming hatred of his native land, but a selfish person so overwhelmingly conceited that that passion governed all his thoughts and actions. His one ambition was to advance his own interests. He was ready to plot with Conway to disgrace Washington, because, though it would have been the ruin of America, he saw in the outrage a chance for his own advancement. While a prisoner in the hands of the British, he drew up a plan of campaign for the conquest of the Americans and submitted it to Howe. Had the English officer adopted it, Lee might have been rewarded and pronounced a great general: that prospect possibly shut out from his mind the enormity of his sin. But Lee had not the ability of Benedict Arnold, and Howe did not consider him worth buying, or, if he did, he must have decided that he could be more useful to him within than outside of the American lines.

It was many years after the revolution before the proof of Lee's treason came to light. Within the present generation Dr. George H. Moore, of New York City, discovered and published in fac-simile the very plan of the campaign proposed by Lee to Howe — so that all doubt on that point is removed.

Washington having sent Lee to the rear, the battle of Monmouth opened almost immediately. Colonels Ramsay and Stewart, who were attacked by the British advance, held their ground for a time, and were then compelled to give way, though Ramsay would not yield until he was wounded and made prisoner. The fighting now became desperate. In the dust and heat and smoke the soldiers fought with great valor, many of them dropping with exhaustion and dying on the ground without a wound.

Lieutenant-colonel Monckton of the Royal Grenadiers made a spirited address to his men, which was distinctly heard by the Americans, who were waiting their onset near the old Tennent parsonage, about a hundred yards distant. The British then moved forward in admirable order. As they approached General Wayne ordered his men to take special aim at the officers, and at the first fire Monckton was killed, his body falling into the hands of the Americans.

Firing was kept up until five o'clock in the afternoon, when the British fell back. The advantage was with the Americans, and Washington anxiously awaited the coming of morning that he might complete the victory. At dawn, however, it was found that Clinton had moved off during the night, and it was not deemed advisable to follow him further. He retreated to Sandy Hook, where he found Admiral Howe's fleet awaiting him. Going aboard, the British landed in New York on the 5th of July, while Washington, marching to the Hudson, crossed at King's Ferry and took position near his old camp at White Plains.

I must not omit to tell you some interesting incidents connected with the battle of Monmouth. The loss on both sides was nearly equal — that of the Americans being three hundred and sixty-two killed, wounded and missing, while that of the enemy was three hundred and fifty-five. A number of Americans, prostrated by heat, afterward

reported to their commands. A splendid monument has been erected on the site of the battle ground, and the day the corner-stone was laid was one of the most notable in the later history of New Jersey. Although there was fighting through the present streets of Freehold, yet the main battle ground was a mile or two west of the town, in the direction of the Tennent parsonage.

The struggle was fierce at the point where Lieutenant-colonel Monckton fell, friends and foes fighting desperately to secure his body. After the battle the British grenadiers were found in heaps, like sheaves in a harvest field. Thirteen of them were buried in one grave. Among the slain was a soldier known as the "High Sergeant," the tallest man in the British army, his height being seven feet four inches.

No account of the battle of Monmouth is complete without the story of Molly Pitcher. The scene is shown on the bronze reliefs on the monument lately erected on the site of the battle field. Molly, so the story is told, was a powerful woman, dressed in the skirts of her own sex and an artilleryman's coat, cocked hat and feather. Before the general action opened two of the advanced batteries began a hot fire against each other. Molly's husband was a cannoneer who suffered so much from thirst during the fight that his wife was kept busy bringing him water from a neighboring spring. While thus engaged she saw her husband fall. She ran to his aid, but he was dead when she reached him. Just then poor Molly heard the officer order the gun removed, because, as he said, he could not fill the post with so brave a man as he had lost. Molly's patriotism outweighed her fear, as, facing the officer, she asked to be allowed to take her husband's place. Her request was granted, and she handled the gun with such skill and courage that all who saw her were filled with admiration. Washington himself was impressed, and when she was presented to him after the battle he conferred on her the rank of lieutenant, and she was granted half-pay during life. She was known afterward as "Captain Molly."

In the morning, Lieutenant-colonel David Rhea, of the Second New Jersey Regiment, who was in the advance, observed a British dragoon coming toward him. He was mounted on an unusually fine horse, and Rhea, having a very indifferent one, resolved to make a forcible exchange. Waiting till the dragoon was within fifty yards he fired at him, but missed his aim. Drawing his second pistol he fired again, and again missed. By this time the trooper was upon him with flaming eyes and uplifted sword. Rhea, concluding that it was indeed time to make a "change of base," wheeled his steed and spurred him to a dead run for the nearest barn, with the enraged and eager trooper at his heels.

The fugitive might well wonder what particular shelter the barn was likely to give him; but he had little time to ask himself any thing. Reaching the structure, he galloped around it several times, with the trooper almost near enough to reach him with his sword. Then, wheeling to one side, Rhea spurred his horse into an open door, across the floor, and out at another door, and then in and out again. All the time the furious trooper was at his heels, and would no doubt have cut him down had not Rhea ridden for life toward the regiment which was now at hand.

The daring dragoon pursued him almost to the bayonets of the troops, then wheeled and galloped back toward his comrades. As he did so more than a hundred

muskets were discharged at him, but, wonderful to say, he was not even scratched, and the admiring Americans plainly saw him take his place in line. A more remarkable escape for both pursuer and pursued it would be hard to imagine.

On the very day that the British army arrived in New York, the Count d'Estaing

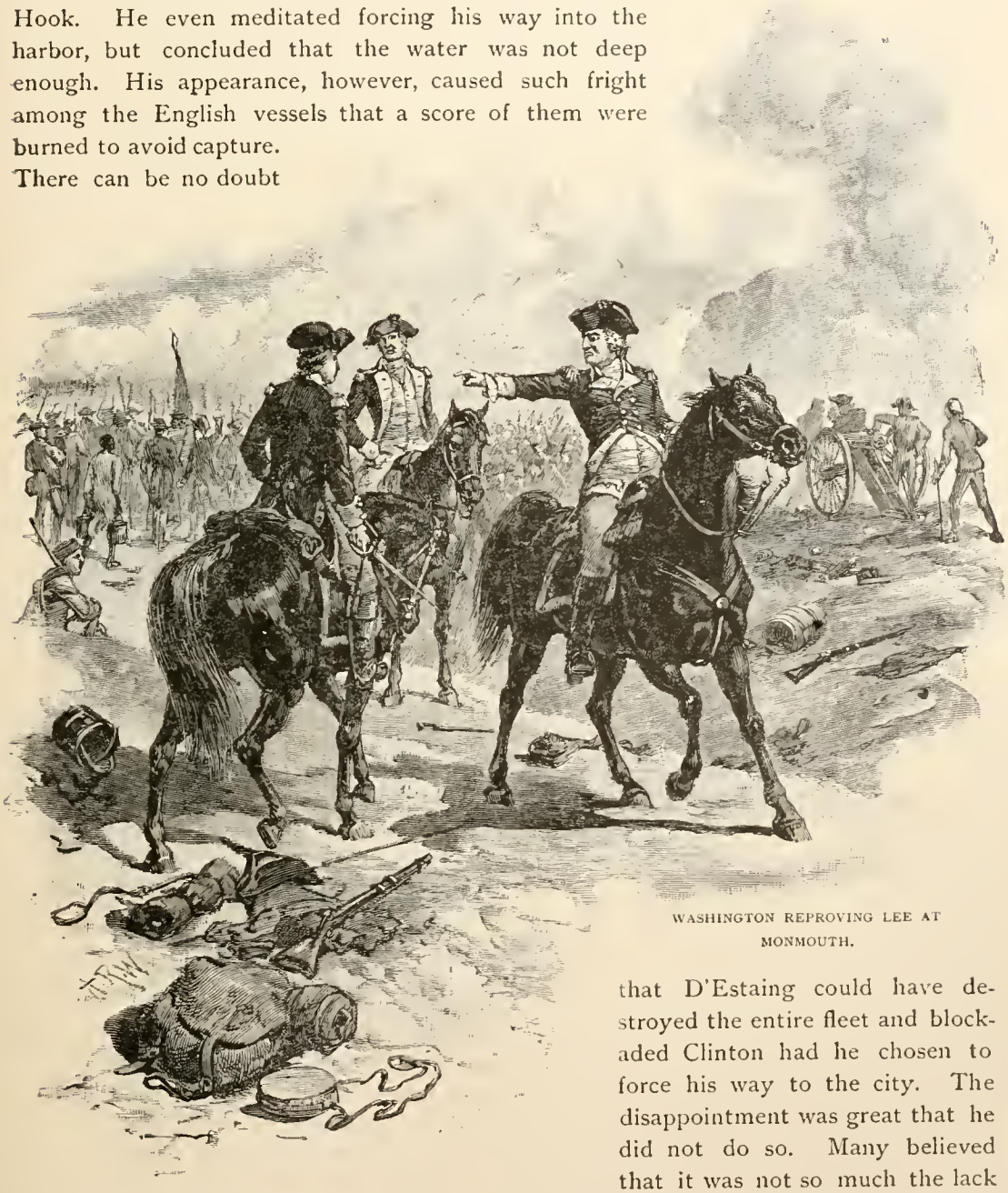
LAFAYETTE AND WASHINGTON.

appeared off the coast of Virginia with a French fleet, consisting of twelve ships-of-the-line and six frigates. It had been equipped at Toulon, before France notified England that she was about to recognize the independence of the United States. There could now be no mistake as to the friendly feeling of France for our country. The flag-ship had on board M. Gerard, French minister to the United States.

Notwithstanding the great expectations concerning the fleet and the army of four

thousand men that it brought, bitter disappointment awaited the Americans. D'Estaing had hoped to catch the English squadron in the Delaware, but arriving too late for that he set sail for New York, and moored off Sandy Hook. He even meditated forcing his way into the harbor, but concluded that the water was not deep enough. His appearance, however, caused such fright among the English vessels that a score of them were burned to avoid capture.

There can be no doubt



WASHINGTON REPROVING LEE AT MONMOUTH.

that D'Estaing could have destroyed the entire fleet and blockaded Clinton had he chosen to force his way to the city. The disappointment was great that he did not do so. Many believed that it was not so much the lack of water as the lack of courage that prevented the movement.

However, gratitude toward France was so deep that all fault-finding stopped when the fleet sailed for Newport, Rhode Island, as if bent on provoking a fight. The English

there burned all their vessels, and there seemed no escape for General Pigot and his six thousand English and Hessians. Sullivan had command in Rhode Island, and under him were Greene and Lafayette with fully ten thousand Continentals and militia.

The agreement between the French and Americans was that a joint assault should be made upon Pigot on the 10th of August, but Sullivan saw an advantage to be gained by an earlier attack, and moved before the appointed time. By an inexcusable oversight he failed to notify D'Estaing of the change. This caused delay, and when, on the 9th, the fleet was ready to take part, thirty-six vessels under Lord Howe appeared in the offing. D'Estaing immediately drew his men on board again, put out to sea and got to the windward of the English fleet, which, however, declined his challenge to battle. While the opposing vessels were maneuvering for position, and when no doubt was felt that a furious naval battle would soon open, a violent storm came up and scattered the ships of both fleets. For ten days they were tossed about, and suffered great damage. Then Howe went back to New York, and D'Estaing, who had come into Newport, sailed to Boston to have his vessels repaired, taking all his soldiers with him.

The anger of the people was too great to be repressed. The French officers were insulted on the streets of Boston and one of them was killed in a brawl. Sullivan and Greene did not hesitate to express in very vigorous language their opinion of the whole proceeding. Indeed, in his general orders Sullivan cast such a slur on their new allies, that only the skill and shrewdness of Washington and congress averted a serious rupture.

Sullivan determined to attack Pigot, even though abandoned by his pretended friends. The enemy had been compelled to withdraw within their intrenchments, which stretched from Newport to Eaton's Pond, while the Americans were protected by earthworks. Sullivan now took possession of the roads leading to Newport and occupied a number of hills near by. The English attacked at several points, but were driven back with heavy loss. It is worthy of note that one of the American regiments was made up of negroes, who were promised their freedom as a reward for fighting for their country. They showed marked courage, repelling three furious charges of the Hessians. The British finally carried several positions, though their loss was over a thousand, that of the Americans being hardly one-fifth as great.

The next day Sullivan received word from Washington that Pigot was about to be re-enforced by five thousand men under Clinton. Nothing but destruction could result from an attempt to hold his position against such a force, and a retreat was begun that night, the whole army crossing safely to the mainland at Tiverton.

The retreat was made not an hour too soon. The next morning a hundred vessels, with the re-enforcements, filled Newport harbor. Contrary winds held Clinton back for four days and the American army was thus saved a most crushing defeat.

Finding that his enemy had escaped Clinton turned his attention to New Bedford and Fairhaven, burning the two towns and all the vessels at their wharves. Then Howe sailed for Boston and challenged D'Estaing to fight him. The Frenchman declined his challenge on the ground that his vessels were not yet repaired. When every thing was in good shape D'Estaing sailed for the West India station, leaving the Americans to fight their battles without his help.

CHAPTER VIII.

1778. ON THE BORDERS AND ON THE SEA.

WE have always had trouble with the Indians. It has been one continual warfare with them almost from the day the first settlement was planted in this country to the present time. The white people themselves have been the cause in almost every instance of this state of affairs. They swindled and maltreated the aborigines, who naturally turned on them and in fact on any whites they could reach, for one of the saddest features connected with the endless Indian wars is the fact that most of those who have suffered were innocent.

William Penn and his Quakers followed the golden rule in their dealings with the red men, and for many long years the most savage warrior could not be tempted to hurt a Quaker. There has been great blundering in our dealings with the Indians, so that the Indian problem, as it is called, is still most perplexing. In the colonial days the French were so much the wiser in their treatment of the dusky warriors that most of the savages fought on that side, and our frontier settlements suffered to a dreadful extent. Then, when the Revolution broke out, England seemed to be able to hold the friendship of the treacherous red men, and our frontiers were again desolated. The Indian warwhoop rang along the border, and the crack of the rifle, the whiz of the tomahawk, and the smoke of the burning cabin, marked the track of the dusky allies of Great Britain.

In New York Sir John Johnson had unbounded influence with the powerful Iroquois or Six Nations, and he used it to the utmost on the side of the invaders. Joseph Brandt, the noted Mohawk chief, had received a good English education, and his sister lived with Sir William Johnson. The Indians had lost so many of their warriors at Oriskany the year before that they yearned for revenge, and Brandt was just the one to lead them, for he was brave, skillful and merciless.

The English governors at Niagara and Detroit did all they could to rouse the Indians against the Americans. During the summer and autumn of 1778 the fearful warfare raged from the Susquehanna Valley northward through the country west of Albany.

In July, a band of Tories and Indians invaded Wyoming, then, as now, one of the loveliest valleys in the world. By a strange coincidence the leader of the Tories was Colonel John Butler, while the commander of the patriot forces was his cousin Colonel Zebulon Butler. The Americans were driven out of two of the forts they had built in the valley, and forced to take refuge in the remaining one known as "Forty Fort."

Most of the men of the valley were in the Continental army fighting the battles of their country, and the few remaining at home were principally old men. These, with the boys, were mustered and armed and found to number between three and four hundred. When summoned to surrender, Colonel Zebulon Butler, acting against his own judgment, it is said, led his force out to meet the Indians and Tories, who were nearly three times as numerous and were strongly posted in the woods. As was to be expected, the patriots were attacked as soon as their position gave the opportunity. They fought well, and for a time there was good prospect of beating off the invaders, but the patriots soon gave way, and then began the massacre which has made the name of Wyoming famous throughout the world. The soldiers were cut down as they fled, less than one-fifth of the number escaping. The women and children, who with an anxiety that can not be imagined were watching from the settlement the progress of the battle, quickly realized the disaster and a stampede was made for the woods and mountains and for Fort Wyoming. The fort was surrendered by Colonel Dennison, who was foolish enough to believe the promise of Colonel John Butler that the people should be allowed to go undisturbed to their homes. Many of them were put to death, and the first four days of July were marked by indescribable horrors.

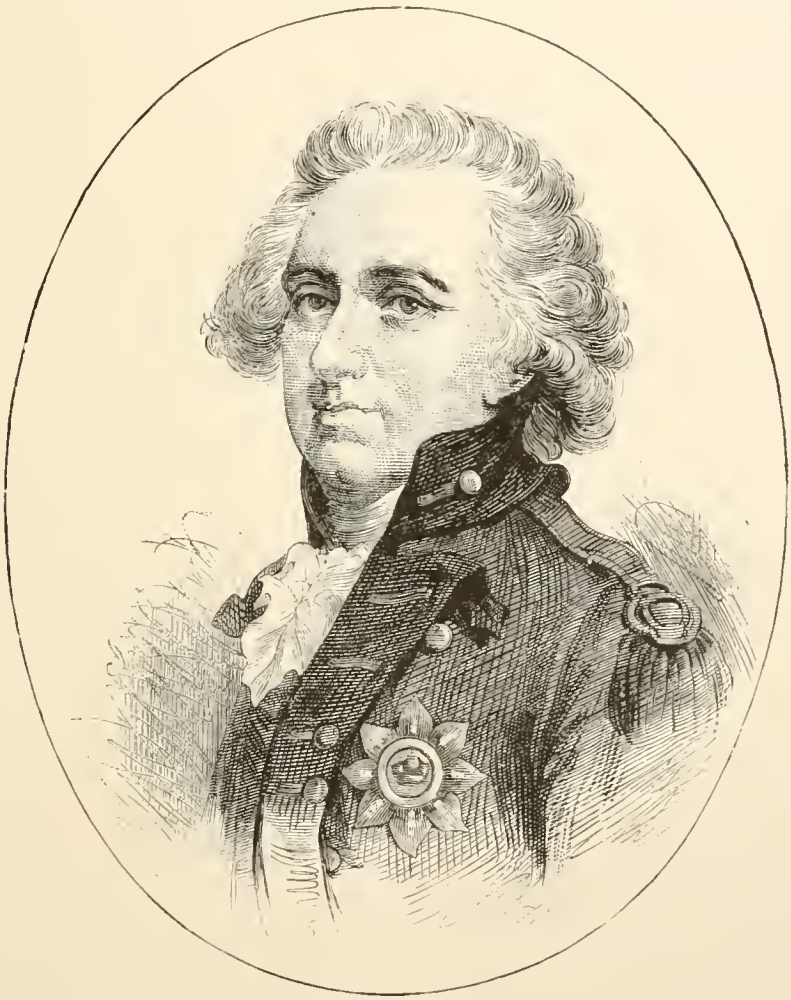
MONUMENT ERECTED AT WYOMING.

A gentleman who in 1824 helped dig up the remains of the victims, to place them under the new monument, and who for many years was a resident of Wyoming Valley, told me that there were facts connected with that mournful episode which he never could forget. Nearly every skull which was gathered and placed beneath the beautiful monument showed that it had been split by a tomahawk. There were holes made by the bullets, but by far the larger number had been cloven by the fiercely-driven hatchet; others had been shot in the thigh or knee, so as to prevent their running, the savages leaving them to be killed at their leisure while they hastened after other victims.

At the date to which I refer — more than sixty years ago — there were a good many people in Wyoming who had been present at the massacre. My informant says that he frequently talked with these men (some of them were leaders and their names appear in the accounts of the tragic affair), and every one told him that the trouble with the Ameri-

cans was that most of them were intoxicated. Whisky was served out to all before starting forth, and the excited patriots drank too freely.

The massacre was marked by a number of most remarkable escapes. One drunken soldier, finding that he could not walk, staggered into a wheat field and fell down by the fence. While he lay there, a horse came galloping across the field with one of the



SIR HENRY CLINTON.

fugitives from the battle holding fast to his tail. This fugitive, who was a school teacher, had been pursued by a party of Indians, and when so exhausted that he could hardly walk had seized the tail of a horse, and scared him into a gallop.

Catching sight of the drunken soldier the teacher called to him to fire at the Indians who were then at his heels. The soldier partly roused himself, raised his musket unsteadily, blinked, and pulled the trigger of his gun, without knowing how it was pointed. But by a wonderful chance this shot killed the foremost warrior, and the

others, seeing the flash from the fence, and supposing that a party of Americans were lying in wait, wheeled and ran for life. The drunken soldier and the panting pedagogue lived many years afterward to tell of the singular incident.

Another fugitive, after running a long distance through the woods, found the Indians so close at hand that he backed into a hollow log. Scarcely had he done so when a spider commenced to spin its web across the entrance. A little later two warriors reached the spot, one of whom stooped down and peered into the opening, The fugitive, cowering in his close quarters, plainly saw the painted visage within arm's length; but the black eyes could not penetrate the darkness, and the Indian was on the point of exploring further, when he noticed the spider-web across the opening. He at once accepted that as proof that no one had passed that way, and abandoned the search.

One of the furies on the side of the Indians was Katharine Montour, or Queen Esther, as she was called. She was a ruling spirit among the Indians in New York, and her most savage warriors could not surpass her in ferocity. It is said that one of her sons was killed while marching on Wyoming, and by her orders nearly a score of prisoners were ranged round the broad flat stone, which is still pointed out to visitors as Bloody Rock. Then, chanting a mournful song, she proceeded to brain each of them in turn, with a death-maul, which she wielded with both hands.

Two of her captives, seeing that they were doomed if they stayed still, made a rush for the river. They were instantly pursued. In plunging down the bank, one of them caught his foot in a vine, and rolled under the thick branches of a fallen tree. In spite of diligent search he could not be found, and waiting till the excitement was over, he crawled out and made good his escape. His companion leaped into the river, and swimming, diving and wading, under a fusilade from the shore, got away in safety, though several times hit.

The most wonderful experience of all was that of little Frances Slocum. When scarcely five years old she was seized and carried away by a party of Indians who ventured into the valley several months after the massacre. Her mother mourned for her as only a mother can, and after the war was over devoted her life to seeking her lost child. She traveled hundreds of miles and visited the various points where the Indians, in accordance with their treaties, brought in captives to deliver up, peering yearningly into the face of each one in the hope of recognizing the features of her beloved Frances. As her sons grew up they joined in the search. They offered large rewards, traveled hundreds and thousands of miles, employed professional hunters and trappers at liberal pay, for the brothers were men in good circumstances, but without gaining the first trace of the missing one.

Finally, after her weary quest had lasted more than twenty years, the mother died, her prayer unanswered.

And yet, through all the continued change of seasons, Frances Slocum was alive, and there can be no doubt that she was often near her mother and brothers. It was better that she and her mother did not meet, for the little child had grown up an Indian in every thing but blood. She had been twice married and was the mother of a large family.

I can not take the space to tell you all the touching story. Fifty-nine years after Frances Slocum was carried away an accident led to her discovery. She was visited by her brothers and sisters, and finally was led to recognize them, though you can not imagine how complete was the change that almost three-score years among the red men had made in her looks, emotions and whole nature.

Wyoming, however, was not the only settlement that during that lurid summer felt the vengeance of the Tories and Indians. When Lafayette was at Albany in 1777, preparing for the expedition into Canada, which was never made, he ordered a fort to be built at Cherry Valley. The command was given to Colonel Ichabod Alden, who was warned of an intended incursion by the Tories and savages, but like many in like cases he refused to believe the report, and told the villagers there was no cause for alarm. The wiser course for them, he said, was to stay at home and attend to their daily duties. Unfortunately his advice was followed.

One day Alden was outside the stockade when an Indian warwhoop broke upon his ear, and he saw a painted savage, tomahawk in hand, coming toward him on a run. The colonel started for the fort at his utmost speed, snapping his pistol at his enemy. The warrior kept up the pursuit, and the officer as he ran repeatedly turned and attempted to shoot his assailant, but his weapon as often missed fire, and when only a few paces from the refuge he had striven so hard to reach the hatchet was buried in his brain.

Meanwhile the Indians were slaying right and left. Fifty persons, mostly women and children, were killed, though the fort was not taken. The leaders of the Tories and Indians were Walter N. Butler, son of the famous Tory, John Butler, and Brandt, the merciless Mohawk chief.

The Americans did not wait long before striking back. They sent several expeditions against the savages on the upper Susquehanna and in other directions, the most remarkable being that of Major George Rogers Clarke, one of the pioneers of Kentucky. Patrick Henry, then governor of Virginia, commissioned Major Clarke to lead an expedition against the Indians west of the Alleghenies. In May, 1778, Clarke with one hundred and fifty men descended the Ohio, stopping at Corn Island long enough to build a block-house and to receive some additions to his company. Five men were left there, who after the company departed crossed to the main land, cleared off some of the woods, and put up several cabins. To these in time others were added, until a town grew up that is now known by the name of Louisville.

Reaching the mouth of the Tennessee, Clarke left his boats and tramped across the country to Kaskaskia. This town belonged to Canada, and the people had no thought of any danger. When, therefore, they found themselves threatened by the daring Kentuckians they had no choice but to surrender. Governor Rocheblave was sent a prisoner to Virginia, and the inhabitants made haste to declare their loyalty to the United States.

Clarke next captured Cahokia, further up the river, where the people were also glad to take the oath of allegiance. The situation of Major Clarke and his command was very critical, for they were many miles from home, with hostile tribes of Indians on

every side; but like the brave men they were, they resolved not to turn back until the ends of the expedition were fully gained. They captured Vincennes, and leaving a gar-

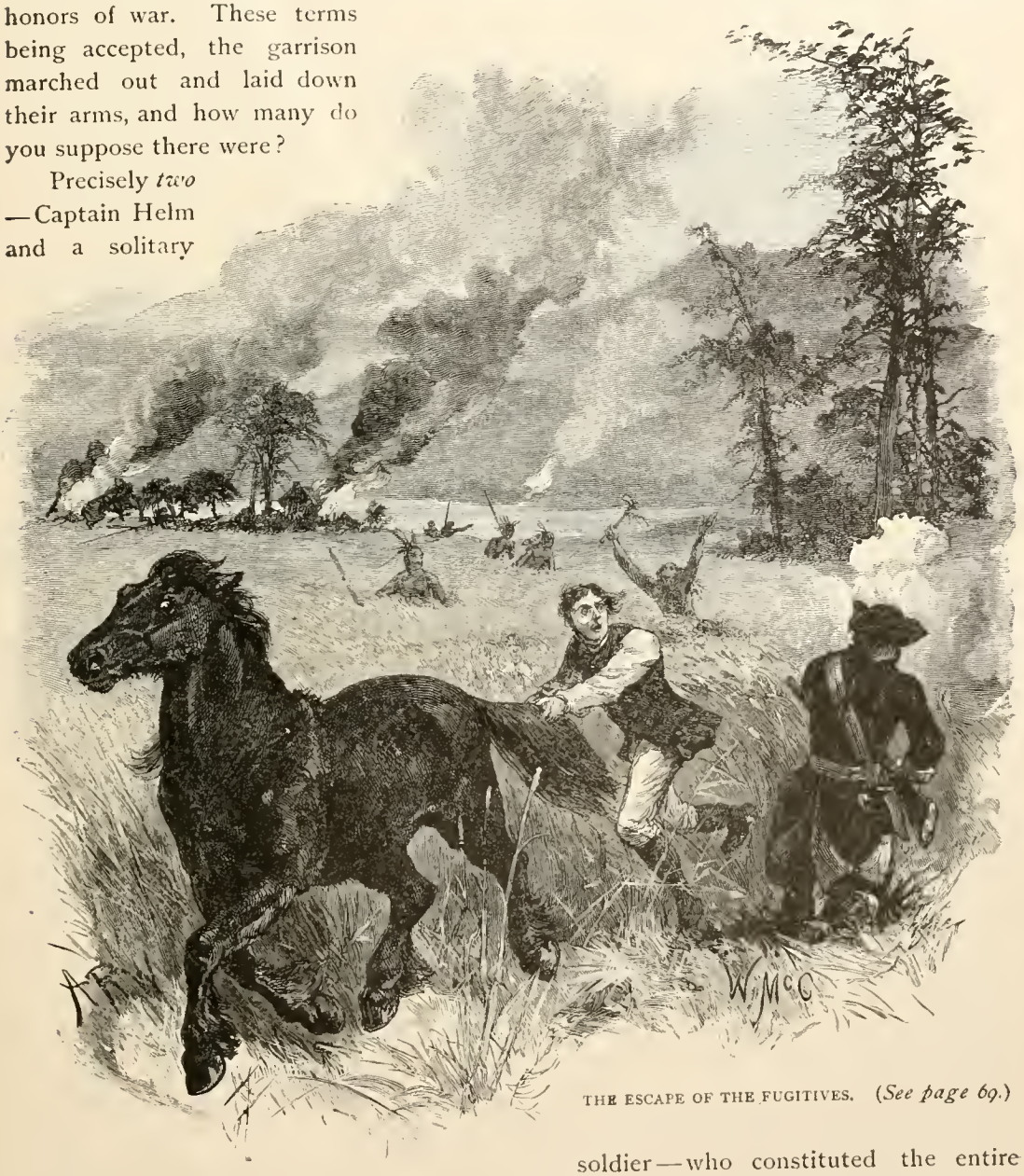
THE VALE OF WYOMING.

rison in the fort struck the Indian villages with such vigor that the savages were terrified.

While Clark was thus engaged, Governor Hamilton of Detroit, at the head of eight hundred men, set out to retake Vincennes. Reaching the fort he sent a peremptory summons to Captain Helm to surrender, but the captain refused until he should know

what terms were offered. Accepting this as an evidence of weakening on the part of the garrison, the governor assured the captain that he and his men should receive the honors of war. These terms being accepted, the garrison marched out and laid down their arms, and how many do you suppose there were?

Precisely *two* —Captain Helm and a solitary soldier—who constituted the entire garrison that had been left behind by Major Clarke. You can imagine the dismay and amusement of Governor Hamilton and his eight hundred troops when Captain Helm and his sole companion solemnly marched between the lines and were received with all the honors of war.



THE ESCAPE OF THE FUGITIVES. (*See page 69.*)

Major Clarke was not yet done with his brilliant work. While at Kaskaskia, he

seized the written orders that had been sent to the governor from the government at Quebec, instructing him to employ the Indians in the war against the Americans.

In the month of December, Governor Hamilton advanced to Vincennes, determined to act against Clarke. The latter marched across a country most of which was under water, his men breaking through the ice and often sinking to their waists in the chilling current ; but presenting themselves in front of Vincennes they demanded the surrender of the post. Every one was amazed, and Hamilton offered resistance, but finally surrendered with his garrison. He had incited the Indians to so many outrages that the council of Virginia kept him for a time in irons.

Beside the exploits mentioned, Major Clarke captured a convoy of supplies from Detroit. His entire expedition was successful, not merely in what was actually done, but in the results following. It defeated all of Colonel Hamilton's projects, and ended the danger in that section from the Indians. Indeed, it has been claimed that but for Major Clarke's work the western boundary of the United States at the close of the Revolution would have been the Alleghany Mountains instead of the Mississippi River. The whole territory north of the Ohio was organized as the "County of Illinois," and it is pleasant to record that Major Clarke and his compatriots were not only publicly thanked by Virginia for their services, but each of them was presented with two hundred acres of land.

No history of the Revolution would be complete without an account of the exploits of Paul Jones, one of the most daring sea rovers that ever lived. France had sent a squadron to America, as you have already learned, but it was a long time before it rendered any real service to the cause of independence. Meanwhile, privateers were fitted out all along our coast. Though unable to meet the regular men-of-war of the enemy, they struck many effectual blows. None of the privateersmen, however, could compare with John Paul Jones, who was a Scotchman by birth, and not quite thirty years of age when the Revolution broke out.

While only a boy he became a sailor in the merchant service and went to America. He visited an elder brother, who had married and settled in Virginia, and soon formed such a liking for the new country that he adopted it as his own. Congress having determined to fit out a naval force, Jones was appointed first lieutenant of the *Alfred*, whereon he hoisted with his own hands the first national flag ever unfurled on an American ship.

There has been much question as to the identity of this flag. There died in the city of Trenton, New Jersey, a few years ago, Miss Sarah Smith Stafford, an old lady whose patriotism had made her known throughout the Union. Her mother witnessed the battle of Lexington, and her father, while serving under Paul Jones, was wounded during the battle with the *Serapis*. He lived, however, to be more than ninety years old.

This old lady had, among her numerous valuable relics, a flag which she insisted was the one that Paul Jones first raised on the *Alfred* and afterward on the *Bon Homme Richard*. The flag has been exhibited in different parts of the country, and possibly you may have seen it. If so, you have noticed that while it resembles our national banner, it has only twelve instead of thirteen stripes. Miss Stafford informed

me that the flag was made by the lady members of the old Swedish church in Philadelphia, and was presented by them to Paul Jones. As he was rowed down the river to his ship, Jones stood up in the boat and waved the flag to and fro, amid the cheers of those on shore. Miss Stafford had good documentary proof of her claim. Long after the war of 1812, the secretary of the navy presented the precious relic to Lieutenant Stafford, the father of Miss Stafford, and it is now in the possession of his son.

The foreign commerce of America was ruined by the ravages of the British cruisers, and capital and men sought reward in privateering. In the year 1777 nearly five hundred prizes were taken by American privateers. For his skill and courage Paul Jones was soon advanced to the rank of captain, and he sailed for Europe in 1778 resolved to retaliate in kind upon those who had ravaged the American coast.

Jones cruised off Solway Frith, close to his birth-place. One night with thirty-one volunteers he rowed out in two boats to the coast of Cumberland, and in the harbor of Whitehaven set fire to three vessels and spiked a large number of cannon in the guard-room of the fort. All England was alarmed when the following year he put to sea in the *Bon Homme Richard*, an old Indiaman given to him by the king of France. He now had the rank of commodore, and was accompanied by two consorts, the *Alliance* and *Pallas*. He first sailed to the Frith of Forth and threw Edinburgh and Leith into consternation. Afterward, when off Scarborough, he sighted the homeward-bound Baltic fleet of merchantmen escorted by the frigates *Countess of Scarborough* and *Serapis*, the latter a ship of fifty guns and the former of twenty-two.

Two-thirds of the men with Jones were prisoners of war, and his regular crews had been weakened in order to take charge of his many prizes, but he signaled to his consorts to join in pursuit, his own ship *Richard* crowding all sail. The latter carried forty-four guns, and the entire number of men in Jones's fleet was about three hundred and seventy-five.

The sea-fight that followed was one of the bloodiest ever known. The sun had set and the full moon was in the sky when the captain of the *Serapis* twice hailed Paul Jones, whose only answer was to open fire, to which the enemy instantly replied. The battle had hardly begun when two of the guns on the lower deck of the *Bon Homme Richard* burst. Several of the men were killed, the rest ran up to the main deck, the guns which they left not being worked again during the battle.

Jones was always fiercely in earnest and his wish was to fight at close quarters. After a little maneuvering he closed with the *Scrapis*, but finding he could not bring his guns to bear, let her fall off again. Captain Pearson of the latter shouted,

"Have you struck?"

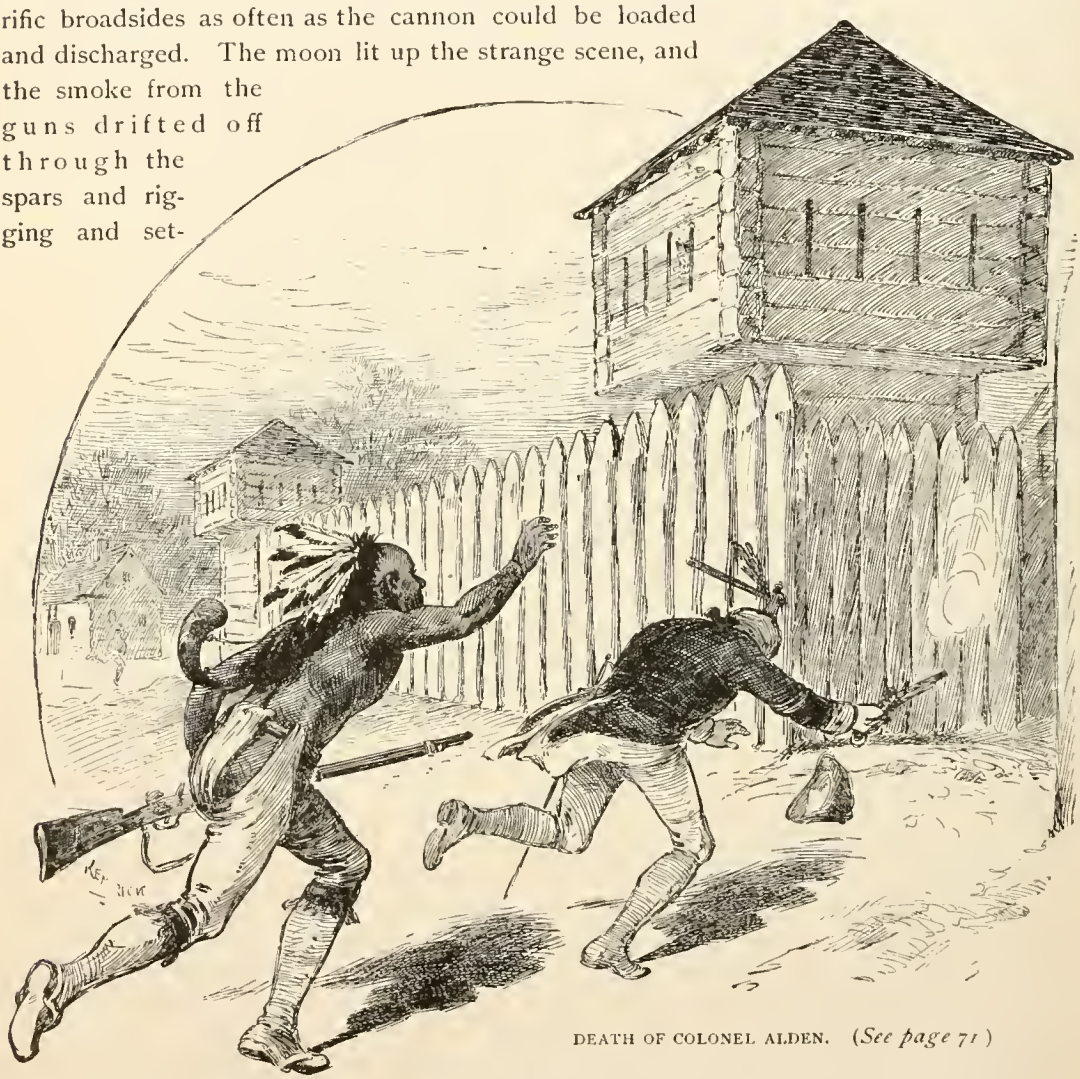
"Struck!" called back Jones; "I haven't begun to fight yet!"

As the *Scrapis* swung round, her jib-boom caught in the mizzen-rigging of the *Richard*. Jones himself lashed the boom to his mast. The lurching of the vessels broke the hold, but one of the enemy's anchors caught his quarter and held fast. Thenceforward, as may be said, the two foes fought locked in each other's arms.

When the *Scrapis* attempted to fire through from the starboard side, she found she could not open the ports because the *Richard* was too close; so the cannon were first

discharged with the ports closed, the port-lids being blown away in order to open a passage. The main deck of the *Richard* was so high that the broadsides from the main deck of the *Serapis* did not hurt any one, for you will remember that the Americans had deserted the lower deck of the *Richard*. The firing, however, did great damage to the ship.

The fighting went on for two hours. The *Serapis* and *Richard* delivered their terrific broadsides as often as the cannon could be loaded and discharged. The moon lit up the strange scene, and the smoke from the guns drifted off through the spars and rigging and settled into a cloud above. Their "thunders shook the mighty deep," and never did men fight with greater bravery.



DEATH OF COLONEL ALDEN. (*See page 71*)

It was at this time that Paul Jones made the maddening discovery that his colleague Captain Landais, commanding the *Alliance*, was firing into him. Sometimes Landais would discharge his broadside at the *Scarborough*, and then deliberately aim at the *Bon Homme Richard*. Many of the Americans believed she had fallen into English hands.

Commodore Jones, however, had no time to inquire into the astounding behavior of his captain, but gave his whole attention to the *Serapis*, whose tars were fighting like heroes. In the rigging of the *Richard* were perched a number of sailors, who flung hand grenades upon the deck of the *Serapis*. One of the seamen made his way out to the

CLARKE AND HIS SOLDIERS CROSSING THE WABASH. (*See page 74.*)

end of the main-yard, carrying with him a bucket of the deadly missiles. These he carefully lighted and dropped down the hatchway of the *Serapis*. He was so cool that he hit the mark every time.

Unfortunately for the *Serapis* a row of eighteen-pound cartridges had been left on deck by the powder-boys, and they now stretched the whole length of the ship. The

American sailor up aloft dropped one of his flaming grenades into this row, and the explosion that instantly followed blew a score of men to pieces and severely burned others.

Captain Pearson again called out to Jones to know whether he had struck, but Jones, who was at the other end of his ship directing the fire of his nine-pounders, did not hear him. Then Pearson summoned his boarders and made a dash for the deck of the *Richard*, but Jones caught up a pike and, leading the charge, drove them back. A half hour later Pearson struck. His ship had been fired a dozen times, but it was the explosion caused by the hand-grenade dropped from the rigging of the *Richard* that decided the battle against him. It had silenced his main battery, and that was his chief reliance.

Amid the awful din and smoke and uproar, half the people on the *Serapis* believed it was the *Richard* that had surrendered. Pearson himself hauled down his flag. Half his men were disabled and the others were terrified by the murderous fire from the rigging of the *Richard*.

When morning broke the *Richard* was seen to be a complete wreck. She was still on fire, and the broadsides of the *Serapis* had riddled her as though she were made of card-board. She was fast sinking, and Jones had only time to remove his wounded and then his crew to the *Serapis* when his own vessel went to the bottom. Four-fifths of his men were killed or wounded. He took his prizes into Holland and turned them over to the French government. To save the Dutch from diplomatic trouble the commodore assumed command of the *Alliance* and put to sea. Landais sailed for home, and on his arrival was deposed from his command on the ground of insanity, and was afterward expelled from the navy.

The king of France, through his ambassador at the Hague, complimented Jones for his exploit, and presented him with a sword. The commodore's victory enabled him to effect the release of the American prisoners in England, who were exchanged for the officers and seamen he had captured.

Jones was absent from home for about three years, during which time his exploits were numerous and of the most astonishing character. He was denounced as a pirate by the English, who became so alarmed by his achievements that many people did not feel safe even in London. Some of the timid ones looked out on the Thames, half expecting to see the terrible fellow lay their city under tribute. At one time he landed on the coast of Scotland, and, appearing at the residence of the Earl of Selkirk, captured a large amount of silver plate and booty. But he treated the earl's household with great courtesy, and the plate that was seized at the time is now in the possession of the members of the Selkirk family.

Paul Jones returned to Philadelphia February 18, 1781. You may well believe that he received a hearty welcome. Congress gave him an appropriate medal and a vote of thanks.

Jones's sea fight with the *Serapis* was the last one that he fought for the Americans. In 1788 he was made rear-admiral of the Russian navy and fought against the Turks. He died in Paris in 1792.

CHAPTER IX.

1778–79. MINOR MOVEMENTS IN THE NORTH.

THE last mention of General Washington left him at his old camp at White Plains, whither he marched after the battle of Monmouth in June, 1778. In September, he shifted his camp to Fredericksburg, about thirty miles from West Point, and near the Connecticut line. General Putnam was sent to West Point to watch the passes in the highlands bordering on the Hudson, while Generals Gates and McDougall were dispatched to Danbury, Connecticut. These movements were made because of the threatening operations of General Grey along the coast of New England. When it became clear that nothing was to be feared from him, the divisions were recalled and Washington made ready to put his men into winter quarters.

This was done with much skill, the troops being so placed that a line of cantonments was formed around New York from Long Island Sound to Delaware, and each division was capable of re-enforcing others in case of attack. The greater force was on the west side of the Hudson, but the east side was carefully guarded. The soldiers were lodged in huts as at Valley Forge the winter before, but their sufferings were not nearly so great. The organization of the army was improved; France had recognized the United States and sent a fleet to help her fight her battles; the prospects in every direction were encouraging.

The English fleet under Admiral Howe was not very strong nor in a superior condition. A re-enforcement had been dispatched from England under Admiral Byron, but boisterous weather had delayed and scattered the vessels.

Before relating events that occurred in other parts of the country, I must ask you to note some characteristics of the great Washington, which may not have occurred to you. When talking of the Revolution, we are apt to think of the commander-in-chief as simply a great general who led his ragged and starving army to victory where others might have failed. He was indeed that and much more. He was in continual communication with congress, and the most sagacious members sought his advice on subjects of importance to the country. Washington was always interested in politics, and during the winter of 1778–79, when his soldiers had little to do, he gave a good deal of attention to the subject.

For some months he had been unpleasantly impressed by the fact that the great national leaders in congress were becoming indifferent to their duties. They were often absent, so that sometimes there were no more than twenty or twenty-five members present to do business. The ringing speeches that used to electrify the country were heard no more; the members used little formality or dignity in their addresses, and

Benj. Franklin

frequently some of the states were for days at a time not represented. In a letter written to a friend December 30, 1778, Washington used the following language:

"It appears as clear to me as ever the sun did in its meridian brightness, that America never stood in more eminent need of the wise, patriotic, and spirited exertions of her sons than at this period. The states separately are too much engaged in their own concerns, and have too many of their ablest men withdrawn from the general council, for the good of the common weal."

Washington insisted that each state should send its ablest men to congress, and then compel their attendance and close attention to business. The belief was quite common that most of the states were badly represented; quarrels were frequent, and Lafayette, who was on a visit to France, wrote to Washington begging him to persuade the gentlemen in congress from "disputing so loudly," since they were doing their country much harm. Moreover, congressmen were apt to consider their loyalty to their respective states a higher duty than their loyalty to the new Union.

There was much dissatisfaction with Silas Deane, one of the American ambassadors to France. He appointed a number of foreigners to positions of rank in the Continental army, and as he possessed no authority from congress to do so, that body was offended. It was in this manner that Lafayette was nominated. Congress hesitated some time before ratifying his commission. Had he not volunteered to serve without pay it is more than likely that he would have been compelled to wait longer for it. In some instances the appointments of Deane were ignored altogether.

Finally congress appointed John Adams to succeed Deane, who was directed to return home. Adams sailed in February, 1778, but did not stay very long in Paris. Having advised the separation of the diplomatic from the commercial and pecuniary transactions of the United States, Franklin was made the sole minister at the French court. Adams, finding himself with nothing to do, came home in the summer of 1779.

When Deane arrived in this country in the course of 1778 he asked to be heard in his own defense. His explanation did not satisfy congress, and the controversy that followed was unbecoming and annoying. It led among other things to the resignation on the 9th of December, 1778, of Henry Laurens as president of congress, because that body did not sufficiently resent the insolence of Deane.

Washington visited Philadelphia during the closing days of that year to discuss with the members a scheme that many of them strongly favored, but which was condemned by the commander-in-chief. This was the invasion of Canada, the time being looked upon as very favorable, because the British forces were much dispersed, many of them being in the West Indies. The congressmen had persuaded Lafayette to favor the expedition, and he was at that time in his own country endeavoring to get from the court of Versailles the help of the French fleet and army, but was unable to convince the French government that it would be wise for them to help reconquer Canada. Having themselves once possessed that province and given it up to England, it was hardly to be expected that the French would feel eager to retake it for the sole benefit of the Americans.

When the proposal was submitted to Washington he condemned it without reserva-

tion. He said that neither the money nor the men were at command, and that the undertaking would involve obligations to France which could never be carried out. If France helped conquer Canada she would be likely to claim it as her own. She would thus gain a position which would give her a most dangerous power over America. She would have Canada in the north, New Orleans in the south, and the hordes of Indians (whom she always knew how to conciliate), on the border, and with such enormous advantages could dictate the policy of America. Washington reminded his friends of that maxim which is so true — No nation is to be trusted further than it is bound by self-interest. "To waive every other consideration," continued the commander-in-chief, "I do not like to add to the number of our national obligations. I would wish as much as possible to avoid giving a foreign power new claims of merit for services performed to the United States, and would ask no assistance that is not indispensable." There was sound statesmanship in these views, and though the authors of the scheme were loth to give it up, they had to do so in the end.

Great Britain had her hands full in those days. Besides being engaged in the gigantic task of subjugating America, she soon found herself involved in a war with France, owing to the help the latter had given to the Americans. It was not long before Spain also joined the enemies of Great Britain.

The war, beginning in Massachusetts, had swept over New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania. Toward the close of the year 1778 it shifted to the South. General Clinton sent Lieutenant-colonel Campbell with two thousand men to conquer Georgia. The expedition reached Savannah on the 29th of December. General Robert Howe had command there with less than fifteen hundred men. He felt secure, because he had a morass on his right, a lagoon in front, the river swamps on his left, and the works of the town in his rear.

But Campbell was not long in finding through one of the swamps a path which had been overlooked by the patriots. Guided by a negro, a British detachment suddenly burst upon Howe's right flank and turned it. At the same moment an assault was made in front and the Americans were routed. They retreated pell-mell through the town, losing their baggage and artillery and more than five hundred men in killed, wounded and prisoners. Those who escaped fled to South Carolina and took refuge in Charleston. The British, whose loss was trifling, next captured Savannah. In the course of a few weeks Augusta was also taken, and General Prevost, coming from St. Augustine, captured Sunbury on his way. It looked as if Georgia had indeed been subjugated.

A result that might have been expected soon followed. A partisan warfare broke out in Georgia and the Carolinas which kept those states in a continual flame of war. There were almost as many Tories in this region as there were patriots, and the hatred between them was of the bitterest nature. Civil wars are the most cruel of all wars. Neighbor was arrayed against neighbor; men prowled through the swamps, rifle in hand, looking for those who had once been their friends. The situation was most distressing. The claim was made — and with good reason — that for three years Georgia was so effectually wrested from the patriots as to be in fact a royal province.

The year closed with the city of New York in the possession of Clinton; Newport

garrisoned by a division under Pigot; the province of Georgia occupied by the British, but with the rest of the country substantially in the hands of the patriots.

Although Washington's strenuous opposition to an invasion of Canada had defeated that scheme, the friends of the movement were so urgent that he consented to an attempt to capture the British fort at Niagara. While he did not look upon the taking of that post as of much importance, he saw that it promised to lead to a thorough chastisement of the Indians, who were devastating our north-western frontiers.

The new president of congress was John Jay, one of the New York representatives. He was of Huguenot descent, a lawyer by profession, and a man of strong character. He held that honorable office during the time Washington was in Philadelphia, that is until the close of January, 1779. As a result of the arguments of the commander-in-chief, the infantry of the Continental army was organized in eighty-eight battalions, to which were added four regiments of cavalry and forty-nine companies of artillery. Recruiting was renewed with vigor and some reform was made in the system of bounties.

The expedition against the Indians consisted of four thousand Continental troops, the militia from the state of New York, and a number of independent companies from Pennsylvania. The command of the expedition was offered to General Gates, but was refused by him in an insolent letter to Washington. It was then assumed by Sullivan, who established his head-quarters at Wyoming and set to work with his usual vigor. It was decided that the expedition should move in three divisions. The center was to be led from Wyoming by Sullivan himself; the left from Pittsburgh under Colonel Daniel Brodhead, and the right from the Mohawk under General James Clinton.

Most annoying delays followed. The supplies were so scanty that for months Sullivan's men were without sufficient food and clothing. This general never minced his words when provoked, and his protests aroused much feeling against him. He cared nothing for that, however, as he finally compelled the authorities to pay attention to his wants.

General James Clinton with seventeen hundred men reached Otsego Lake, the source of the Susquehanna River. The stream being too shallow in the neighborhood of the lake to float his boats, Clinton dammed up the outlet until the accumulated waters raised the lake several feet. Early in August the obstruction was torn away, and the rushing waters carried down the river two hundred and twenty boats, filled with the troops of Clinton.

On reaching the spot where the present village of Union stands, Clinton was joined by Sullivan with a detachment of troops, and their united force numbered nearly five thousand men. On the 26th of August the combined forces marched from Fort Sullivan on Tioga Point (now the village of Athens, Pennsylvania), toward the Indian country.

The savages against whom these formidable preparations were made were the Iroquois or Six Nations, the most powerful league of Indians ever formed on this continent. They included the Mohawks, Cayugas, Oneidas, Onondagas, Senecas and Tuscaroras. The last named tribe from the south had joined the others early in the eighteenth cen-

tury, previous to which time the confederation was known as the Five Nations. Most of the Oneidas and a few of the Mohawks favored the patriots during the Revolution, but the other tribes were strong partisans of the British.

These Indians knew what was coming and decided to go out and meet their enemies. On the spot where to-day is the flourishing city of Elmira the Indian village of Newtown then stood. When Sullivan reached this point, he found awaiting him a force of about twelve hundred, made up of British regulars, Tories and Indians, under the command of Captain MacDonald, Colonel John Butler, his son Captain Walter N. Butler, and the ferocious Mohawk chief, Joseph Brandt.

PAUL JONES.

As Sullivan's force was fully three times as great and was led by brave officers, the enemy would not have made a stand, had they not hoped to lead the patriots into a trap such as had been fatal in the case of Braddock and others. An American rifleman, however, climbed to the top of a tall tree, and from his perch discovered the whole plan of the enemy. As a consequence, Sullivan flanked the Tories, soldiers and Indians, and drove them helter-skelter into the woods with heavy loss. The blow was such a severe one that no exertions could rally the Indians again to oppose the advance of the American general.

With the red men who inflicted such frightful sufferings on the frontiers Sullivan would not treat or make terms. He had been sent into their country to punish them and he did it with fearful completeness. The Indians possessed cultivated fields, substantial houses and thousands of fruit trees. Sullivan visited forty of their villages, some of considerable size, and left them in ashes and smoldering ruins. He destroyed their harvests so utterly that during the unusually severe winter that followed a great many of the natives died from hunger and disease. It was indeed awful punishment, but it was deserved and necessary. The next spring some of the savages engaged in hostilities, but their power was effectually broken and comparative peace now reigned on the frontier.

The Indians fled before the advance of the American army and took refuge near Niagara, where they were protected by a British garrison. Sullivan returned to Wyoming and forwarded an account of his campaign to congress. But he had enemies in that body and they ridiculed his report so unsparingly that he was angered and sent in his resignation on the 9th of November.

Colonel Brodhead, who, as you have been told, had been appointed to lead the expedition from Pittsburg, ascended the Allegheny River with six hundred men. His purpose was to create a diversion which should aid Sullivan in pushing forward the general campaign. He not only did that, but destroyed many villages and corn fields, and after a month's absence came back to Pittsburg without the loss of a man.

MEDAL STRUCK IN HONOR OF PAUL JONES.

Aside from the wisdom shown by Washington in opposing the invasion of Canada, he proved that no one understood so well as he the deplorable state of his army. Early in May, the New Jersey brigade was ordered to move from its winter quarters at Elizabethtown, whereupon all the officers in one regiment resigned. They had no money, their families were at the point of starvation, and no attention had been paid to their prayers for relief. Most leaders would have been merciless in putting down such insubordination, but Washington preferred to appeal to their patriotism, and the New Jersey legislature was at last driven to do something to relieve the crying necessities of the sufferers.

One of the worst men that ever figured in history was the Tory Governor Tryon of New York, who had been made a major-general in the British army. He was of so ferocious a disposition that the Indians gave him the name of *Big Wolf*. On the 5th of July he landed at New Haven, with three thousand men. There was no armed force to oppose him, but the people rallied to the defense of their homes, for they knew that no savages could be more cruel than the foes that were now upon them. The Yale students formed themselves into a company; even clergymen seized muskets; the planks of the bridges were torn up, and from the tops of the hills a few small field pieces opened fire on the invaders. General Putnam, who happened to be in the neighborhood, gathered the militia, but the English and Hessians could not be checked, and overran the town.

They ransacked private houses, stole every thing on which they could lay hands, committed horrible outrages, and the next morning returned on board their vessels and were taken to Fairfield, which town, together with Green's Farms and Norwalk, was not only plundered, but burned to the ground.

It was during this shameful raid of Tryon's that Putnam, hotly pursued by the British dragoons, wheeled his horse out of the road and spurred him on a dead run down a place so steep that it has been called a precipice. There have been many pictures of the scene, and the story has been told over and over again since the Revolution; but, after all, there is nothing so very wonderful about it. In 1825 a number of Lafayette's dragoons rode down the precipice for sport, and I doubt not that many a youth who reads this page might do the same without thinking it a thing worth boasting about.

Washington ordered the building of fortifications at Stony Point, the rocky headland on the west side of the Hudson, thirty-six miles above New York, and also at Verplanck's Point on the other side of the river. This was done to guard his lines of communication, and to watch the passes of the highlands between New York and Albany. On the 30th of May Sir Henry Clinton sent a strong force from New York to capture both places.

Clinton and Admiral Collier accompanied the force that sailed up the river. The larger division landed on the east bank, seven miles below Fort Lafayette, at Verplanck's Point, while the rest, with Clinton, continued up stream and went ashore on the west side, three miles from Stony Point. Here the American defenses were not finished, and the patriots withdrew, after setting fire to a block-house. The assailants seized the position, and by great toil dragged a number of heavy cannon and mortars to the top of the hill. Fort Lafayette lay across the river, about a thousand yards away, and by daylight the next morning a battery was ready to open on it. Preparations were made to invest it, when the garrison surrendered. Clinton gave directions for completing the fortifications and putting them in a thorough state of defense, after which he went back to New York.

The design of the English commander-in-chief included the forcing of his way to the highlands, the seizure of the passes, and the complete command of the Hudson. Washington suspected that the preparations going on in New York meant something of the kind, and governed himself accordingly.

When the plan for the recapture of Stony Point was perfected, the commander-in chief appointed Anthony Wayne to do the work. He could not have fixed upon a better man, for the dash and daring of General Wayne had gained him the name of "Mad Anthony," by which he will always be remembered.

On the 15th of July Wayne mustered his four regiments of infantry, and, after a march of twelve miles from Sandy Beach, halted at eight o'clock in the evening within a mile and a half of the fort. The night was one of the hottest of the season. The air was so oppressive that the men threw aside their outer clothing, but they were full of eagerness for the fight. While they rested at this point, Wayne went forward and made a careful reconnoissance. On his return, he divided his force into two columns,

and, that they might know each other in the darkness, a bit of white paper was pinned to each hat.

Wayne gave them to understand that in the assault they were to depend on the bayonet alone lest some nervous soldier by the premature discharge of his gun should betray the advance. He instructed his officers to cut down the first man who took his musket from his shoulder before the word was given. The two divisions, attacking from opposite sides, were to meet in the fort. General Wayne led one, and Colonel Fleury the other.

The advance was discovered and fire was opened by the pickets, the whole garrison hurrying to their posts.

"Come on, you rebels!" called out the British soldiers, who laughed at the attack.

"Don't be in a hurry; we're coming!" was the reply of the patriots as they struggled upward.

It was a little past midnight and the air was suffocating, when the outer works were reached. The patriots were received with a savage fire of musketry and cannon loaded with grapeshot, but the two columns rushed resistlessly forward and arrived almost at the same moment in the center of the enemy's works. Colonel Fleury, who was the first to scale the parapet, hauled down the British colors; his own men almost fell over him in their eagerness. On the other side, Wayne at the head of his column was sent reeling to the ground by a bullet wound in his forehead, but he speedily rallied, and with the help of several of his men entered the fort.

The garrison fought bravely, but finding Americans in both front and rear, they surrendered. Sixty-three had been killed, and five hundred and forty-three were made prisoners, while the loss of the patriots was fifteen killed and eighty-three wounded. Wayne secured the ordnance and stores, which were of great value, destroyed the fort and marched away. A few days later a division of British re-occupied the ruins.

At the time of the capture of Stony Point, the country was exasperated because of the outrages committed by Tryon in Connecticut; but the patriots did not retaliate this cruelty upon the prisoners who fell into their hands. Congress passed strong complimentary resolutions, and ordered that the value of the military stores should be apportioned among the officers and men. Medals commemorating the event were struck, and Washington was highly praised for his vigilance and wisdom.

During the Revolution, Jersey City, directly opposite New York, and now the second city in the state, was a small post known by the name of Paulus Hook. It was so strongly fortified, however, and so difficult of approach, that the British garrison could not believe they were in any danger. On the morning of August 20th, when part of the defenders were out on a foraging excursion, Major Henry Lee, with five companies of troopers and infantry, seized the blockhouse and two redoubts before an alarm could be given. The sentinel at the outer gate mistook them for the foraging party coming back, and did not discover his mistake until too late. The post was taken with a hundred and fifty prisoners. The alarm, however, quickly spread to New York and to the shipping in the bay, and knowing that if he tarried he was likely to be cut off, Major Lee retreated, having lost but two men killed and three wounded. Inasmuch as he never

had a thought of trying to hold the post, but aimed only to capture the garrison, it must be owned that he fairly won the gold medal that congress gave him.

I must tell you about a curious expedition in another part of the country. General McLean commanded the British army in Nova Scotia. With a view of getting ship timber for the royal navy, and also of stopping the raids of the Americans into Nova Scotia, he established a post on the Penobscot. The Maine territory belonged then to Massachusetts, and that state, feeling that she could not permit the invasion, sent a strong force to expel the intruders. General Lovell, who had charge of the expedition, was given one thousand men. With them went three ships of the Continental navy, three of

BRIGADIER-GENERAL ANTHONY WAYNE.

the Massachusetts navy, and thirteen privateers, carrying in all three hundred guns, and under command of Commodore Saltonstall.

McLean's station was on the eastern shore of Penobscot Bay, nine miles from the sea. The land on which it stood was a wild peninsula covered by a dense forest. While engaged in clearing away the wood, McLean heard of the expedition against him, and when the American vessels came in sight on the 25th of July, his three sloops of war opened fire on them. The Continentals were not able to land until the 28th, and McLean turned the interval to good account by strengthening his fortifications to the utmost.

General Lovell erected a battery a little less than half a mile from the enemy, and for nearly a fortnight a brisk cannonade was kept up. It had so little effect,

however, that Lovell prepared to take the place by assault. When he was nearly ready, he learned with consternation that Sir George Collier had entered the bay with a powerful naval force. Here was a glorious chance for Saltonstall to do as Paul Jones would in his place have done, but the New Englander was another sort of commodore. He looked upon defeat as so sure that he embarked his forces and cannon in

THE ASSAULT ON STONY POINT.

the night, and sailed away in the hope of escaping; but the American ships were hotly pursued, and many burned or blown up. The men, landing in the trackless woods, started for their homes hundreds of miles distant, without food and with hardly a chance of getting any. Many died on the way, and the survivors, when they reached civilization, were a ragged and half-famished rabble.

CHAPTER X.

1779. THE CAMPAIGN IN THE SOUTH.

THE American successes in 1779 were not very satisfactory. The campaign has been described as languid, and is noteworthy as having taken place mostly in the South. I have told you about the principal incidents in the North, and you have observed that they were not of a kind to produce much effect on the general campaign itself.

You remember the defeat of the patriot General Howe at Savannah and the capture of Georgia by the loyalists. General Benjamin Lincoln, of Massachusetts, superseded General Howe in command at the South and much was hoped from him. He made his way to Charleston, where he found matters in a deplorable condition. Congress had provided no means of paying the soldiers, and the troops were dependent on the different state governments. By and by North Carolina sent two thousand men to Charleston, but they were without weapons and Congress had no magazines in that part of the Union. It was sometime before they could be furnished by South Carolina, but finally Lincoln's forces marched toward Georgia, picking up by the way the remnants of Howe's scattered army. He established his head-quarters at Purysburg, January 3, 1779, at which time he had between three and four thousand men under his command. Many of them, however, were raw troops, and the entire force was much inferior in discipline to their enemies under General Prevost.

The aim of Prevost was to cross the Savannah from Georgia into South Carolina. This river is, as you know, the boundary between the two states. It is not formidable as a river, but the broad belt of marsh land on each side, often overflowed to a width of four miles, is a great obstacle to a marching army. The enormous swampy expanse is passable only on a few narrow causeways, and then by but few persons at a time. Thus it was that Lincoln and Prevost were separated by a barrier that each was eager to cross but could not.

While these leaders were confronting each other, partisan warfare in other states raged with great fury. The British sent agents among the people to arouse loyal sentiment, and in some instances they succeeded only too well, especially in the back counties, where many of the inhabitants did not understand the real merits of the American Revolution. Seven hundred of these Tories were gathered by Colonel Boyd, who started to lead them to Augusta, but when he reached the British camp they had dwindled to about three hundred.

On the tramp across the state, the Tories committed many excesses that roused the wrath of the patriots. Colonel Andrew Pickens gathered a force in the patriotic district of Ninety-six, and assailed the Tories with great fury. Five of the prisoners that he took were tried for treason and hanged.

The British station at Augusta was abandoned in February, and General Lincoln, thinking himself strong enough to strike a blow, sent General Ashe, with fifteen hundred North Carolina militia to take position opposite Augusta. It was hoped that by this means Prevost would be shut off from all communication with the Indians and Tories in the west. Finding Augusta evacuated, Ashe crossed the river, marched down the southern bank and posted himself near where Brier Creek, falling into the Savannah, forms an acute angle with the latter stream.

This position, with the marshes on the left, and Brier Creek in front, was very strong, but Ashe was completely outgeneraled. Prevost kept up a pretense of attacking in front, while nine hundred picked men passed several miles up Brier Creek, crossed and fell upon the rear of General Ashe with such vigor that his undisciplined troops scattered like chaff in the wind. Many threw down their arms without firing a shot; others plunged into the river and were drowned; some took refuge in the swamps, and the remnant surrendered. Most of those who escaped fled to their homes, scarcely two hundred rejoining Lincoln, who lost one fourth of his army by this disaster.

The crushing defeat of this detachment restored Prevost's communication with the Indians and back settlements. Indeed, the conquest of the state seemed so secure that the English general issued notice that civil government was restored in the province. Executive and judicial officers were appointed, and the laws as they were at the close of 1775 were declared to be in force, until changed by the legislature which was soon to meet.

But the patriotic South Carolinians were not men to be easily trampled in the dust. They meant that Georgia should be kept in the Union, no matter what the cost. John Rutledge was elected governor and he and his council were clothed with dictatorial powers. One thousand militia were sent to General Lincoln, who on the 23d of April marched up the Savannah with the main body of his army. The river was flooded and overspread the marshes, but he made preparations to cross to the southern shore.

As the best way to counteract this invasion, Prevost dispatched a detachment of his own army into South Carolina. On the 29th of April he passed the river near Purysburg, with twenty-five hundred troops and a number of Indians. Moultrie was at Black Swamp, with a patriot force of two hundred regulars and eight hundred militia. He retreated, destroying the bridges behind him. Many of his men deserted; the state militia would not go to his rescue, and the situation of South Carolina was extremely critical.

Moultrie sent an express to Lincoln, who was then nearly opposite Augusta, but Lincoln, although he would not turn aside from his own expedition, in which he needed all his men, sent a small re-enforcement to Moultrie, and crossing the Savannah, marched eastward along the river toward the city of that name.

Meanwhile, Prevost pushed his way into South Carolina, where he found so little opposition and so many friends that he decided to attempt the capture of Charleston. He halted two or three days to complete his plans, and then resumed his march, which was marked in its whole course by devastation and robbery. Moultrie could do nothing except to throw all the obstructions possible in his way. Messengers sent to Lincoln for re-enforcements came back with the same answer—not another man could be spared.

Charleston did her utmost to meet the coming attack. The people threw up fortifications on the land side and collected all the troops possible, so that when Moultrie reached the city he was both gratified and encouraged.

General Prevost arrived at the ferry of the Ashley River, near the city, on the 10th of May. The next morning he passed the stream, and marching along the narrow peninsula between the Ashley and the Cooper, on which Charleston stands, was soon within range of the guns on the fortifications. A summons to surrender was made on the 12th, and considerable negotiations followed. Some of the civil authorities, anxious to secure the safety of the town, were willing to agree that South Carolina should remain neutral for the rest of the war. But Governor Rutledge, Moultrie and other patriot leaders would not listen to this, nor would Prevost himself consent to such neutrality.

The Carolinians made sure of immediate attack, but Prevost saw that the position was too strong to be carried by assault, and knew beside that Lincoln was hurrying on to attack him in the rear. Finding, also, that the number of loyalists was much less than he had supposed, he looked upon his situation as a perilous one, and decided to withdraw his forces.

This retreat he managed with much adroitness. Seeking to avoid the army of General Lincoln, he turned to the east and passed along the coast to the Island of St. John, where he halted to await re-enforcements from New York.

Between this island and the mainland is a narrow channel called the Stono Inlet. Across this a bridge of boats was thrown and a body of men was posted on the mainland to help protect the island and the necessary foraging parties. These troops numbered fifteen hundred, and their position was protected by three strong redoubts.

Lincoln forbore to make any attack so long as Prevost and his whole force remained, but after a time the English general withdrew, leaving only a garrison of seven hundred on the mainland and a few on the island. Lincoln and Moultrie then arranged that the latter should pass over to James Island with a body of militia and hold the attention of the troops on St. John's, while Lincoln attacked the post at the ferry.

In accordance with this plan, Lincoln with twelve hundred men advanced to the assault at seven o'clock, on the morning of June 20th. He first engaged with two companies of Highlanders, who fought with great bravery, but were compelled to fall back. The advance was hotly pressed, and, at one time, the patriots were on the point of success, but owing to lack of boats Moultrie could not give the help promised, and Lincoln was compelled to withdraw, taking his wounded with him. The British left Stono Ferry and the Island of St. John on the 23d of June, retired to Beaufort, on the Island of Port Royal, and thence fell back to Savannah. The weather was so hot that neither side renewed active hostilities until autumn.

The attempt to strike the South was made at another point, for the British leaders had come to the foolish conclusion that it would not be difficult to conquer that part of the Union, and thought that when it should be brought back to its allegiance it would be equally easy to force the North to terms.

After the departure of Admiral Howe, the British fleet on the North American station had been commanded for a short time by Admiral Gambier, who was succeeded in

April by Sir George Collier. This officer and Clinton formed a plan for entering Chesapeake Bay with a mixed military and naval force, which by a series of quick movements was to break up the commerce of that section and to destroy the magazines on its shores.

Eighteen hundred men were put under the orders of General Matthews, and the fleet to carry them and take part in the operations was convoyed by the admiral himself. The capes of Virginia were reached on the 8th of May, and two days later the vessels entered Elizabeth River, when the American troops there stationed immediately took to flight. General Matthews established himself at Portsmouth and sent out

VIEW IN SAVANNAH: AVENUE OF LIVE OAKS, WITH HANGING MOSS.

detachments to Norfolk, Gosport, Kemp's Landing and Suffolk. Large quantities of naval and military stores and shipping were captured or destroyed, and toward the close of the month Matthews went back to New York.

The hot summer months passed, and as the cooler days of September approached, the patriots prepared for another move in the South. The general belief was that if Savannah could be taken from the British, its capture would fully repay all that it might cost. D'Estaing was in the West Indies with the French fleet, where he did much more for the king of France than he had done in Rhode Island for the United States. Governor Rutledge of South Carolina and General Lincoln asked him to join them in driving the invaders out of Savannah. He consented and promptly made his appearance at the

mouth of the river, bringing with him twenty-two sail-of-the-line, a number of small vessels, and six thousand soldiers. In answer to his demand for the surrender of the town, Prevost asked for a suspension of hostilities for twenty-four hours, and the request was granted.

This truce proved the salvation of Prevost. He completed his works of defense, mounted eighty guns, and was re-enforced by eight hundred veterans under Lieutenant-colonel Maitland from Port Royal. This gave him a force of about two thousand men. When the twenty-four hours had elapsed he notified D'Estaing that he intended to defend the place to the last. But the troops under D'Estaing had also been re-enforced, General Lincoln, Colonel M'Intosh and Count Pulaski joining him. Heavy artillery and stores were brought up and the siege opened on the 23d of September. A furious fire was poured against the walls for several days, not only from the batteries on shore, but from a floating battery in the river. The effect was not perceptible, and Savannah seemed as far from capture as ever.

D'Estaing was much chagrined, for not only had he failed, but his fleet was now in danger. The tempestuous season was approaching, and the English fleet was likely to assail him and imperil the work he had done in the West Indies. There was but one thing to be done, — to carry the works by storm.

On the morning of October 9th, three thousand French and half as many Americans advanced in three columns to the assault, under cover of a heavy bombardment. D'Estaing's courage could not now be questioned, for he was twice wounded while leading the attack. Prevost defended the place with great skill and courage. His men had the advantage of the protection of an abatis and earthworks; but the allies pressed forward, broke down the abatis, crossed the ditch and mounted the parapet on which they planted the French and American standards. The Polish Count Pulaski, in a transport of martial heroism, dashed, with two hundred horsemen, between the batteries toward the town ; but the heroic leader fell mortally wounded, and his squadron broke.

Sergeant Jasper, who at Fort Moultrie so bravely restored the flag to its place when carried away, was also mortally wounded during this contest, which raged for more than an hour. In the end, the besiegers were driven back with a loss of nearly twelve hundred in killed and wounded, while the British had less than fifty killed. The siege was abandoned, and the Americans, recrossing the Savannah, returned to Charleston. The French fleet sailed for the West Indies, but was scattered by a tempest before it could reach its destination.

The general gloom throughout the Union, and especially in the South, over the failure of this enterprise was lifted in a slight degree by a daring feat of Colonel White of Georgia. On the dark night of September 30th, with only six volunteers, he made such an appearance of strength and numbers, by building numerous camp fires in different places, that a British captain, protected near the Ogeechee River, by five vessels, was frightened into surrendering with a hundred and forty-one men. The British were marched to the American post at Sunbury, more than twenty miles distant. It was a wonderful exploit indeed, but it amounted to scarcely a feather's weight against the failure to recapture Savannah.

On learning that the French fleet under D'Estaing was helping the Americans near Savannah, Sir Henry Clinton was alarmed. What he dreaded was that it would sail northward and unite with Washington in an attack on New York. In the latter part of October, therefore, he evacuated Rhode Island, where a large force had been stationed for nearly three years. Stony Point and Verplanck's Point were also abandoned and the British army concentrated in the city of New York. But, as you have been told, D'Estaing and his fleet returned to the West Indies.

As cold weather came on the Continental army went into winter quarters. The main body was at Morristown, New Jersey, where may be seen to-day the spacious old mansion in which Washington for a time made his home. It is kept with much care and is well worth a visit.

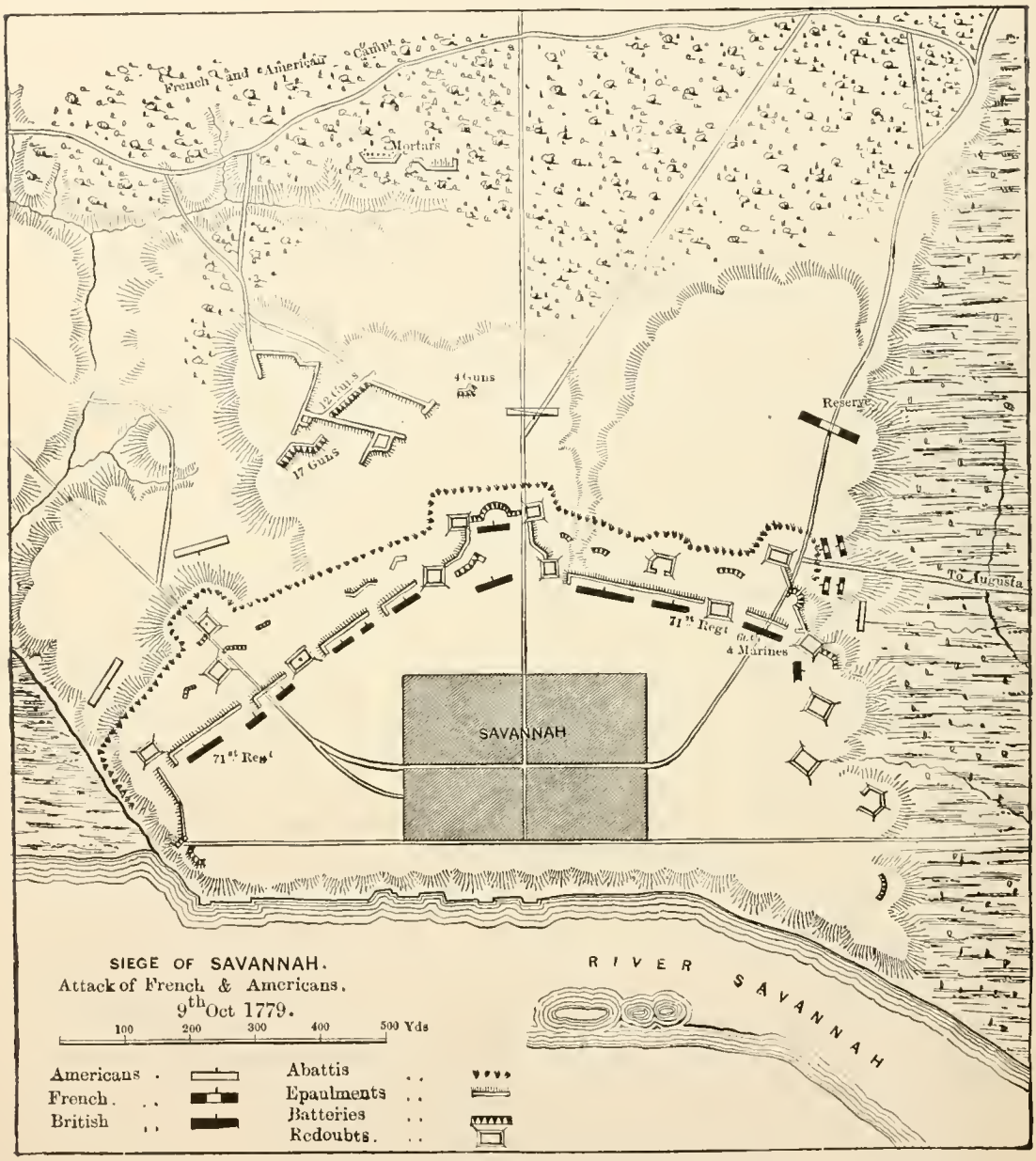
Strong detachments of the patriot forces were posted at West Point and other stations near the Hudson, while the cavalry were in Connecticut. The urgent need of helping General Lincoln in the South led the commander-in-chief to send him two of the North Carolina regiments and all the Virginia forces. This was done early in December, because of the failure of the attacks on Savannah.

The winter of 1779–80 was one of the severest ever known in our country. Snow fell to a great depth, and the weather was like that which Lieutenant Greely and other Arctic explorers found in the far north. Animals died by the hundred; men were frozen to death on the highways; scores of wolves, made desperate by hunger, came out of the woods and prowled around the homes of the settlers; many persons were seized at their own doors and torn to pieces by the fierce animals; and for days and weeks those who could live without going out, never stirred from their houses.

Indeed, the weather was so severe that the ordinary channels of trade were shut, and the British troops in New York suffered a great deal. Their distress, however, could not equal that of the Continental troops in their huts at Morristown. The only way of getting supplies was by levying on the people; but in doing this, the aid of the civil magistrates was sought, and the owners of the articles taken were allowed to fix the price at a fair valuation, or to receive the market price when the certificates were paid. The people showed so much good will that it was not found necessary to use force. In that respect they were very different from the farmers at Valley Forge, who burned their produce or sold it to the enemies of their country rather than let it fall into the hands of the starving patriots. The Jerseymen are the more to be praised because every one knew that the Continental currency was shrinking in value so fast that before long it would become almost, if not quite, worthless. This money, of which there is much in existence to-day, was taken cheerfully, and, as a consequence, while the patriots underwent much discomfort, it was by no means so bad as when they were quartered at Valley Forge.

I have mentioned the fact that earlier than this date Spain had become involved in a war with England. You remember that when one of our ambassadors to France went to Madrid to ask for help, he could not get a hearing from the king. Affairs were very different, however, after Spain recognized the independence of the United States. Don Bernardo de Galvez, the Spanish governor of Louisiana, called together the whole force

of his province just as soon as he learned of the declaration of war, and on the 19th of August, 1779, proclaimed by beat of drum the separate existence of the states. Eager to do something for his country, he marched against the British settlements on the Mis-



PLAN OF THE POSITION BEFORE SAVANNAH.

sissippi and captured them. Of course these places were weak, and the exploit of the governor was without effect on the war between Great Britain and her colonies.

Never at any time after the breaking out of the Revolution, was there a stronger

yearning for peace than during the latter part of the year 1779. You have learned how slight was the progress of the patriot cause. Great Britain held New York, she had driven congress out of Philadelphia; she was in possession of Savannah, and was preparing to move against Charleston; and she had overrun the southern states, where the hardest fighting was between the Tories and patriots.

This could not go on forever. The states were drained to such a degree that they were near the point of exhaustion. This was so clear that congress, as early as August 14th, appointed a commissioner to negotiate a treaty of peace with Great Britain. He

WASHINGTON AND HIS GENERALS.

was ordered, however, to make no treaty except on the basis of the recognition of the independence of the United States.

The instructions to the representatives in London, Paris, and Madrid were explicit; but since they resulted in nothing, it is hardly worth while to give them further attention. It may be mentioned, however, that John Adams was appointed to negotiate the proposed treaty of peace with Great Britain, and John Jay was sent to arrange matters with the court at Madrid. As a result, Jay sailed in October, and was succeeded in the presidential chair of congress by Samuel Huntington. Henry Laurens was elected to negotiate a loan with Holland, and about the same time M. Gerard, the French minister at Philadelphia, gave way to the Chevalier de la Luzerne.

CHAPTER XI.

1780. THE WAR IN THE SOUTH.

ALTHOUGH the arctic-like winter of 1779–80 suspended all military movements for the season, Sir Henry Clinton improved the time by pushing operations in the south.

The aim of Clinton was to get possession of Charleston. Holding Savannah, as he did at that time, with his soldiers scattered over Georgia and the Carolinas, you can see that, with the chief city of the south in his hands, the patriots would have little left beside their own high courage.

On the 26th of December, 1779, the British commander-in-chief embarked, with seven thousand five hundred men, from New York, leaving Knyphausen in command of the city with only a small force, since Washington, having sent so many of his troops south, was not strong enough to give much trouble. Many raids were made, back and forth, by the opposing forces. On one of these, Lord Stirling burned a number of houses and vessels on Staten Island, while the enemy destroyed the Presbyterian church and court-house at Elizabethtown. Another party burned the academy and a number of private dwellings in Newark.

The voyage of the British expedition from New York to Savannah, its base of future operation, was so tempestuous that the town was not reached until the close of January, 1780. On the voyage several of the transports and supply vessels were captured by American cruisers. So many draught and cavalry horses died that the army was in no condition to take the field, and it was not until the 11th of February that Clinton landed on St. John's Island, thirty miles south of Charleston. Thence he advanced to the island of St. James, while part of his fleet returned to blockade Charleston. Clinton moved so slowly that Governor Rutledge and General Lincoln had leisure to fortify the town.

The garrison at Charleston numbered about three thousand, and Lincoln was sure he could hold the place against any approach from the land side. Commodore Whipple had nine small vessels in the harbor, and with these, and the strong guns of Fort Moultrie, he was quite certain he could keep the British fleet from crossing the bar.

Strong works of defense were thrown up back of the city and between the rivers Ashley and Cooper, and Lincoln was hopeful that before the attack was made he should receive re-enforcements from the main body of the Continental army. The fortifications were built under the direction of M. Laumoy, a French engineer, and they were so good that Clinton had to make his approaches in regular form.

The British commander-in-chief showed no haste. He felt that the game was his

own sooner or later, and that he could take what time he chose. On the 1st of April he arrived before the walls of Charleston, and on the 9th Admiral Arbuthnot anchored within reach of its seaward guns. Commodore Whipple saw no hope in a naval battle. He therefore sunk all his ships, except one at the mouth of Cooper River, to block the channel. The men and guns were added to the defenses of the city.

The enemy finished the first parallel April 10th, and were then within about half a mile of the city. On the same day, Arbuthnot came with the British fleet and General Lincoln was summoned to surrender the town. He refused and the enemy opened fire. The country north being open, Rutledge and half the council left the city that they might carry on the government of the state elsewhere and to rouse, if possible, the local militia. Many believed that Lincoln should have withdrawn his army at the same time, since to stay was certain capture, and it was not long before the only way of escape was closed. The American cavalry under General Huger was stationed at Monk's Corner, thirty miles up the Cooper River, to check the British foragers and to guard supplies on the way to town. Posts of militia were also placed between the Cooper and the Santee, to cover the retreat of the Charleston garrison in case of defeat. Calling in the troops that he had stationed to the south of the capital, Clinton directed Lieutenant-colonel Bannastre Tarleton, commanding a corps of light dragoons, to break up the American posts beyond the Cooper. On the night of April 14th a negro slave led Tarleton to one of the posts by secret paths and he burst like a thunder bolt upon the patriots, of whom some were killed, and the rest scattered. The other stations were broken up likewise, and the only avenue by which the American forces could have withdrawn was shut.

Charleston was fully invested. Not only that, but the besiegers were sent a reenforcement of three thousand men from New York, and it was not long until the second parallel was done. The investing lines were strengthened, and on the 21st of April terms of capitulation were offered, and rejected, but the outlook for General Lincoln was gloomy indeed.

A third parallel was soon begun. The beleaguered made a sortie, but without result. On the 7th of May the garrison at Fort Moultrie, where the works had not been strengthened, were summoned by Admiral Arbuthnot to surrender, and obeyed at once. The cavalry that had been scattered at Monk's Corner was defeated and dispersed twice again by Tarleton.

Meanwhile, the besieged were worn to the last stage of exhaustion. They were on duty night and day, many of their guns were dismounted, and their supply of food was running short. Negotiations were opened, and on the 12th of May General Lincoln surrendered his army and the city. The male citizens, according to the report of the British adjutant-general, numbered about six thousand. They and the militia were set free on parole, while the regular soldiers and seamen were held as prisoners of war.

Sir Henry Clinton treated the patriots with much kindness. He required that the town and fortifications, the shipping, artillery and all public stores should be given up. The soldiers of the garrison were to march out of the town and lay down their arms in front of the works and were to be prisoners of war until exchanged. Clinton pledged himself to furnish them with rations the same as those given his own troops. The offi-

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THE CHARGE OF PULASKI. (*See page 94.*)

Pen drawing by W. L. Jumel.

cers were allowed to keep their arms, and their baggage was not to be searched. They were permitted to hold their personal servants and sell their horses.

Although the siege had caused suffering to the inhabitants of Charleston, there was not much loss of life on either side. About a score of the citizens were killed in their homes by stray shots, some thirty houses were burned, and many others damaged. The garrison numbered not quite twenty-five hundred men, while the besiegers were fully nine thousand. More than four hundred pieces of artillery, including those in the forts and ships, fell into the hands of Clinton. This was a great loss—greater indeed than would have been the wiping out of the entire Continental army of the South.

Clinton followed up his success with vigor. A strong detachment under Lord Cornwallis was sent to the borders of North Carolina, to destroy a patriot force under Colonel Abraham Buford, who arriving too late to take part in the defense of Charleston, had posted himself on the northern bank of the Santee, where he was joined by the American cavalry left after the last defeat by Colonel Tarleton. A second expedition, not so strong, was sent into the center of South Carolina, and a third went up the Savannah to Augusta, Georgia.

Shortly after crossing the Santee, Cornwallis learned that Buford and about four hundred men were encamped near the borders of North Carolina. He dispatched Colonel Tarleton, with seven hundred cavalry, to destroy this force. Tarleton marched one hundred and five miles in fifty-four hours, and came upon Buford on the banks of the Waxhaw. A demand was sent to the Americans to surrender on the same terms given the garrison at Charleston. While the question was awaiting answer Tarleton placed his men so as to surround Buford. When, therefore, the expected refusal came back to the British officer, he fell upon the patriots with resistless ferocity. The Americans having no time to prepare, were thrown into confusion. Some of them fought at random, others threw down their arms and shouted for quarter, while Colonel Buford and a small number managed to break through the line and escape. The savage troopers showed no mercy, and the affair at Waxhaw was simply a massacre, instead of a battle. Nearly all the patriots were killed, badly wounded or made prisoners. The name of Tarleton was hated in the South as that of Benedict Arnold came to be in the North. He was dreaded for his celerity and cruelty, the very terror of his name driving many into the ranks against him. For the crime on the Waxhaw, Cornwallis commended Tarleton to the special favor of the British parliament.

The slaughter of Buford ended for the time all organized resistance in the South. The people could not be blamed for giving up hope. Charleston and Savannah were held by the invaders, who had a strong army among the states, against which the patriots could not prevail. No re-enforcements came from the north, and in addition to foreign enemies the Tories were almost as plentiful in many places as were the friends of liberty.

A great many citizens took the oath of allegiance or gave their parole not to bear arms against the mother country. Clinton, however, made a great blunder, when on the 3d of June he proclaimed that all who did not enlist, and help to bring peace and order to the provinces would be treated as rebels. A great many had taken "protec

tion," as it was called, with the intention of remaining neutral; but when ordered to turn against the few patriots that still defied King George, they refused.

Clinton's plan was to follow up the conquest of South Carolina with a campaign against North Carolina, but learning that a French fleet with a number of troops was expected on the coast, he decided to go back to New York with the major part of his army. Accordingly, he sailed from Charleston on the 5th of June, leaving Lord Cornwallis with four thousand men to hold that which had been won and to gain what else he could.

Cornwallis took steps to push an active campaign, but the heat was so great that he had to wait till cooler weather. He was not idle, however, but set out to enlist the Tories of South Carolina and Georgia. He opened correspondence with his friends in North Carolina and advised them to do nothing until the English could support them.

Toward the close of March, Washington sent a re-enforcement to the South. It was made up of Delaware and Maryland troops, with a regiment of artillery under Baron de Kalb, a German officer that had come to America with Lafayette. The march southward was very trying. They had no money, and were obliged, therefore, to break up in small parties and gather food as best they could. In July, among the hot sand-barrens of North Carolina, they ate unripe corn, peaches and other fruit, and a great many fell sick, but the others pressed on, and were joined by several hundred refugees, who had been hiding among the forests and in the mountains. Among these was Colonel Thomas Sumter, whose family had been treated with great cruelty by the military authorities, and who, therefore, was filled with anger toward the invaders.

The country was full of patriots, anxious for some such chance to fight for their country. The village blacksmiths hammered out swords for them; families gave up their pewter dishes to be run into bullets, and the women handed over their jewels to help along the sacred cause.

Up to this time, the English forces had held a line of posts reaching from the river Pedee, near the eastern boundaries of the state, to the fortified village of Ninety-six, in the western part. This curious name, I believe, arose from the fact that it was just ninety-six miles distant from the chief village of the Cherokee Indians.

Learning of the approach of the re-enforcements, Cornwallis called in his outlying troops and massed them at Camden. He meant to do all he could to defeat the new patriot army that was rapidly taking shape.

Baron de Kalb, who commanded the re-enforcements, could speak scarcely a word of English, and knew so little of the country and habits of the people, that it seemed a wise step when, on June 13th, General Gates, as instructed by congress, took command of the southern department. But there was much that was against the Americans. Not only was their food of the worst character, but often there was no food at all. It was the hottest season of the year, and most of the troops were badly equipped and without discipline. They numbered about two thousand, and others were expected from North Carolina and Virginia, but Gates decided not to wait.

On the 27th of July the patriot army was in motion over the direct road to Camden. This highway led through a dismal region. Swamps, sandhills, and pine-barrens joined

each other; the scorching sun made the men gasp for breath; the air was heavy with malarial vapors, and scores fell ill and dropped out by the wayside. The re-enforcements reached them about the middle of August, and Gates decided to give Cornwallis battle. The latter had just arrived and taken command, and he was as eager as Gates to fight.

Both armies moved on the night of the 15th, with a view of surprising each other. The advance guards unexpectedly met about two o'clock on the morning of the 16th, and in the skirmish that ensued, the Americans fell back, causing some confusion. The fighting ended and both armies waited for daylight.

Cornwallis showed great skill in the battle of Camden. He saw that the Americans were flanked on both sides by morasses, and as a consequence they could not make full use of their superior numbers to spread their ranks and flank him. He formed his men in two divisions, the right under command of Lieutenant-colonel Webster, and the left under Lord Rawdon, a young man at that time barely twenty-six years of age. He had fought at Bunker Hill, and in after years became famous in India as the Marquis of Hastings.

The American army was in three divisions with artillery between them, the commanders being Generals Gist and Caswell and Baron de Kalb. Gates held himself ready to appear whenever needed.

Cornwallis, having learned where the raw and untried patriots were placed, launched his best soldiers under his best officer — Colonel Webster — against them. They were the Virginia militia, who holding their ground long enough to fire one volley flung away their guns and ran like frightened deer. The North Carolina militia caught the panic and away they went. The commanders, assisted by Gates, strove hard to rally them, but it could not be done, the whole left wing fleeing in wild disorder.

The others fought with splendid heroism. Under the command of De Kalb, they disputed every foot of ground, even after the center and left wing had been swept from the field. They were the American regulars, and in fighting qualities were inferior to no soldiers on earth. A furious bayonet charge, led by De Kalb, broke the line at one point, but Webster, having crushed the left wing, now swung down to the help of Rawdon, who was engaged in such a bloody struggle with De Kalb's regulars. It was not, however, till Cornwallis brought his whole force to bear on the Continentals that they gave way. De Kalb fell to the ground pierced by eleven mortal wounds. His aid-de-camp stood over him and shouted the name and rank of the brave man lying helpless on the ground. He also was wounded and taken prisoner, and De Kalb was stripped of most of his clothing, but the arrival of Cornwallis saved him from further indignity. He died the next day, after dictating a letter in which he expressed the warmest admiration for the gallantry of the Maryland troops whom it was his privilege to lead.

Gates's army had met the same fate as that of Lincoln. As an organization it existed no longer. Most of the militia scattered to their homes, as though they had no further interest in the war. Before sunset, the general himself was more than fifty miles from the field of battle. He finally came to a halt at Hillsborough, one hundred and

eighty miles from Camden, where he set to work to gather another army from the fragments scattered over the country.

Two days later, another disaster befell the American arms. Colonel Sumter, strengthened by a detachment from Gates, set out to capture some clothing, ammunition and

PLAN OF THE SIEGE OF CHARLESTON. (*From Stedman's History of the American War.*)

other stores for the garrison of Camden, which was on its way from Ninety-six, and to conquer a small fort on the Wateree, not far from the head-quarters of the English army. Sumter performed his task, but learning of the disaster at Camden, retreated with his stores and prisoners along the south bank of the Wateree.

While they were resting under the shade, with no thought of danger, the terrible Tarleton and his cavalry fell upon them with such fury that fully four hundred men (half the force) were killed, and the rest were scattered. Sumter barely managed to escape, and all his prisoners and booty were retaken.

Confident that the last man could be driven out of the Carolinas before congress could send another army thither, Cornwallis gave all his energy to the work. His main force advanced from the Waxhaw settlement toward Charlotte, Tarleton moving through the country on the left, and Ferguson, with a body of provincial troops, following a line still closer to the frontier. The business of these officers was to reassure the Tories and

LORD RAWDON, AFTERWARD MARQUIS OF HASTINGS.

to persuade them to enlist, and also to stamp out the partisan rangers, who were very troublesome, as they had been for several years.

Francis Marion and Thomas Sumter were the leading partisans of the south, Marion being the more famous. They were privateers on horseback. Familiar with the tangled swamps, and always well mounted, even though in rags themselves, they were the terror of the invaders. To-night their camp-fires twinkled in the depths of the dense pine woods; to-morrow they were half a hundred miles away. At the crack of their rifles the

pickets of Cornwallis fled, leaving a score of dead behind. The dreaded cavalry of Tarleton often came back from their raids with many a saddle emptied by the invisible foes. They were here, there, and everywhere. Their blows were swift and sure, their vigilance sleepless, and their daring like that of the lion.

Lieutenant-colonel Lee says that when sent by General Greene to make a junction with Marion, who was sometimes hidden in the swamps of the Pedee, sometimes in those of the Black River, but nobody ever knew exactly where — he found him only by accidentally falling in with a small detachment of his men; and even they had to search for hours before they found the camp of their general.

Under the leadership of Sumter and Marion, the militia in the central and western parts of the state, and especially on the upper tributaries of Broad River, were rallied, armed and mounted. At Rocky Mount, on the Wateree, Sumter burst upon a party of dragoons and scattered them like chaff. In August, he fell upon a large detachment of regulars and Tories at Hanging Rock and sent them flying in all directions. This affray was Andrew Jackson's first experience as a soldier.

When Marion started out on his wonderful career as a partisan fighter, his company numbered only twenty men and boys, white and black, half dressed and poorly armed. They were known as the "Ragged Regiment," but they rapidly increased in strength, until they became the dread of the invaders. There was no telling when or where their blows would fall. If they were expected in front they were sure to attack in the rear. By the time the patriots had dealt their blow and the enemy were ready to strike back, Marion and his men were gone, to be heard of next at some point full a hundred miles away. All through the summer and autumn of 1780, Marion revolved about Cornwallis, very much as a satellite around a planet. He often cut the British communications, and made assaults that compelled the admiration of the British commander, who at the same time was annoyed by them beyond endurance.

The fighting of Marion and his men was much like that of the wild Apaches of the south-west. When hotly pursued by the enemy his command would break up into small parties, and these as they were hard pressed would subdivide, until nearly every patriot was fleeing alone. There could be no successful pursuit, therefore, since the subdivision of the pursuing party weakened it too much.

"We will give fifty pounds to get within reach of the scamp that galloped by here, just ahead of us," exclaimed a lieutenant of Tarleton's cavalry, as he and three other troopers drew up before a farmer, who was hoeing in the field by the roadside.

The farmer looked up, leaned on his hoe, took off his old hat and mopping his forehead with his handkerchief looked at the angry soldiers and said:

"Fifty pounds is a big lot of money."

"So it is in these times, but we'll give it to you in gold, if you'll show us where we can get a chance at that rebel; did you see him?"

"He was all alone, wasn't he? And he was mounted on a black horse with a white star in his forehead, and he was going like a streak of lightning, wasn't he?"

"That's the fellow!" exclaimed the questioners, hoping they were about to get the knowledge they wanted.

"It looked to me like Jack Davis, though he went by so fast that I couldn't get a square look at his face, but he was one of Marion's men, and if I ain't greatly mistaken it was Jack Davis himself."

Then looking up at the four British horsemen, the farmer added, with a quizzical expression:

"I reckon that ere Jack Davis has hit you chaps pretty hard, ain't he?"

"Never mind about *that*," replied the lieutenant; "what we want to know is where we can get a chance at him for just about five minutes. He has been in our camp, robbing and stealing like a pirate; two men grabbed him, but he knocked down one, killed the other, ran to his horse and away he went. He had his animal in the woods close by, but it was such a poor looking brute that we felt sure of catching him. But we've ridden hard for two hours and are further off than when we started. His horse seemed to be tired and I've an idea that he may be hiding somewhere around here."

The farmer put his cotton handkerchief into his hat, which he now slowly replaced, and shook his head:

"I don't think he's hiding round here," he said; "when he shot by Jack was going so fast that it didn't look as if he could stop under four or five miles. Strangers, I'd like powerful well to earn that fifty pounds, but I don't think you'll get a chance to squander it on me."

After some further questioning, the lieutenant and his men wheeled their horses and trotted back toward the main body of Tarleton's cavalry. The farmer plied his hoe for several minutes, gradually working his way toward the stretch of woods some fifty yards from the roadside. Reaching the margin of the field, he stepped in among the trees, hastily took off his clothing, tied it up in a bundle, shoved it under a flat rock from beneath which he drew a suit no better in quality, but showing a faint semblance to a uniform. Putting it on and then plunging still deeper into the woods, he soon reached a dimly-marked track, which he followed only a short distance, when a gentle whinney fell upon his ear. The next moment he vaulted on the back of a bony but blooded horse, marked by a beautiful star in his forehead. The satin skin of the steed shone as though he had been traveling hard, and his rider allowed him to walk along the path for a couple of miles, when he entered an open space where, near a spring, Francis Marion and fully two hundred men were encamped. They were eating, smoking and chatting as though no such a horror as war was known.

You understand, of course, that the farmer that leaned on his hoe by the roadside and talked to Tarleton's lieutenant about Jack Davis and his exploits was Jack Davis himself.

Marion and his men had many stirring adventures. Had I the space to spare I could tell you more, but you can read them for yourself in the history of those brave patriots. There is one anecdote, however, of which I must speak, although I think that perhaps you have heard it.

A British officer, sent to settle some business with Marion, was asked by him to stay to dinner. Marion was always a charming gentleman, and the visitor accepted the invitation, but he was astonished to find that the meal consisted only of baked sweet pota-

toes served on bark. No apology was made, but the guest could not help asking his host whether that dinner was a specimen of his regular bill of fare. "It is," replied Marion, "except that to-day in honor of your presence we have more than the usual allowance."

The officer, according to the anecdote, went back to Charleston and resigned his commission, saying that America defended by such men could never be conquered.

It should be remembered to the eternal honor of Marion that all through this wild warfare his personal honor was never tainted. He was never mean or dishonest. He died toward the close of the last century, and on his death bed he declared that he had never intentionally wronged any man. The name of Francis Marion will always be cherished by the whole Union and especially by the South. No words can be more truthful than those carved on the monument of the hero and patriot, that he lived without fear and died without reproach.

We have wandered a little from the more stately tread of events, in order to do justice to a man whom all of us admire. Resuming, you will recollect that by the defeat at Camden and the assault of Tarleton upon Colonel Sumter, more than a thousand Americans were killed, wounded or captured. Meaning to make thorough work of quenching the rebellion in the South, Cornwallis marched the main body of his troops from the Waxhaw settlement toward Charlotte, Tarleton moving through the country on the left, and Ferguson following a course still nearer the border with a body of provincial troops. It was their business to befriend the Tories and to destroy Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and the other partisans who were causing so much trouble.

Colonel Clark of Georgia had been busy for some time collecting troops in the Carolinas. At the head of seven hundred men he attacked the British post at Augusta and compelled the garrison to fall back to a hill on the Savannah. Lieutenant-colonel Brown was the English commander and his position was most critical, when the discovery of a strong Tory force in the vicinity led Colonel Clark to withdraw.

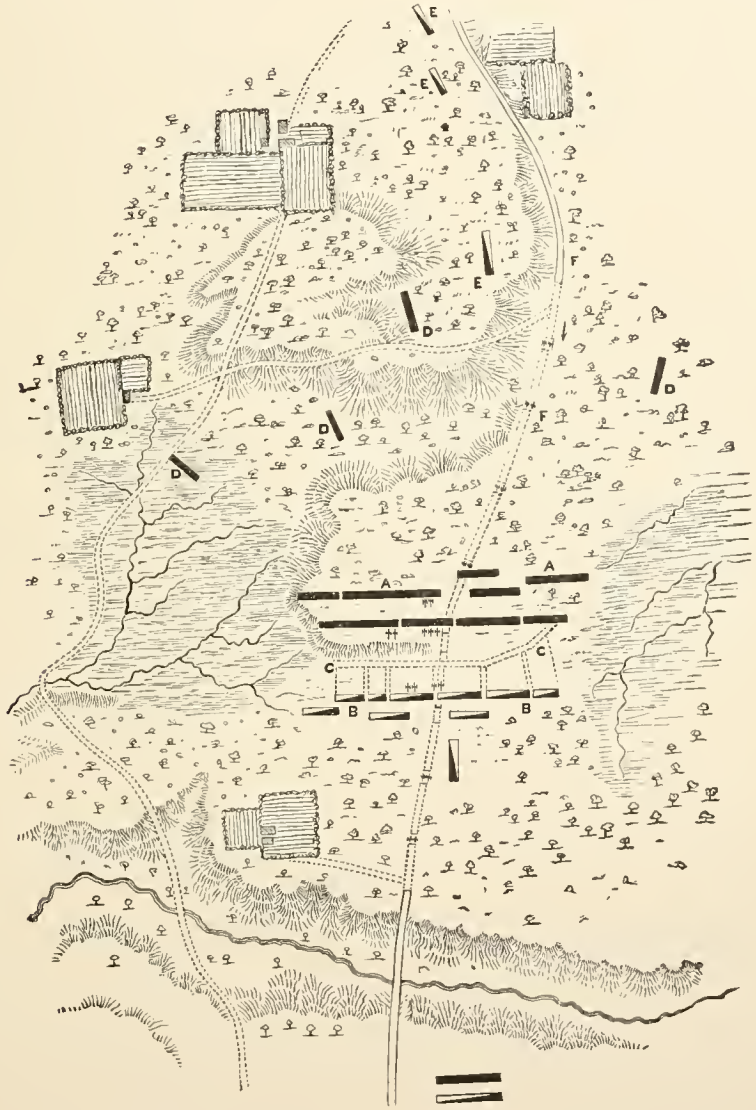
Ferguson was ordered by Cornwallis to assail Clark in his retreat, but he had scarcely begun to do so, when a large body of North Carolina and Kentucky riflemen arrived, and at once started in pursuit of Ferguson, who was thus placed in a more dangerous situation than ever.

Although the new arrivals were without any military organization, they were a strong body. Each man of the fifteen hundred had his own gun, ammunition and horse, and all were fine marksmen. Besides their horses they had nothing but their blankets, knapsacks and rifles.

Ferguson saw his danger, and retreating toward Charlotte, sent messengers to Lord Cornwallis for re-enforcements. The Americans captured every messenger and of course no re-enforcements were sent. Ferguson posted himself on King's Mountain, on the border line between North and South Carolina and awaited his pursuers.

He did not have long to wait. On the 8th of October the British force on the summit of the slight elevation was assailed by the Americans, who advanced in three divisions, led respectively by Colonels Cleveland, Shelby and Campbell. To show the manner in which the patriots fought, I have only to give you the substance of Colonel Cleveland's address to his men, as they were about to open the battle.

"When the fight begins, you are not to wait for the word of command; I'll show you by example how to fight and that's better than talk; each one of you is to consider himself an officer and do the best he can. If repulsed you must not run away, but pick



PLAN OF THE PATTLE OF CAMDEN. (*From Stedman's History of the American War.*)

your flints and up and at 'em again. If any of you are afraid, I not only give you leave to withdraw, but ask you to do so now. That's all; follow me!"

Cleveland meant every word he spoke, for he was at the head of his riflemen as they charged up the summit, which they reached ahead of the other two divisions. From behind the trees, they opened fire upon Ferguson's men, but the British fought with the coolness of veterans. They made such a furious bayonet charge on Cleveland's division

that it was forced back. Just then Shelby from another direction poured volley after volley into the flank and rear of the British. The latter charged again with the bayonet and scattered Shelby's riflemen. Then Campbell's men took a hand, and they were driven back in the same manner.

The three columns, having been repulsed one after another, now united in their attacks. Even then Ferguson held his ground, his men fighting heroically for over an hour. Finally Ferguson fell from his horse mortally wounded, and his successor at once surrendered.

Nearly eight hundred men laid down their arms; more than four hundred escaped, and three hundred lay dead or wounded on the field. Fifteen hundred stand of arms were secured by the Americans, many of them intended for the Tories that Ferguson expected to enlist on his march through the country. The loss of the Americans was slight — not more than twenty being killed.

The overwhelming defeat of Ferguson caused Lord Cornwallis to retreat from Charlotte into South Carolina. The march was attended with great suffering. Rain fell in torrents, and the men, being without tents, had to sleep under the trees, exposed to malaria, and for nearly a week were forced to live on ears of Indian corn plucked from fields by the roadside. Cornwallis himself became so ill that the command was turned over to Lord Rawdon. One-fourth of the effective force of the British army was destroyed, though re-enforcements were expected from the North. On the 29th of October Rawdon drew up his army at Wynnesborough, an intermediate station between Camden and Ninety-six.

General Gates now tried to re-organize the remnants of the army that had been routed at Camden. He wrote the president of congress, on the 16th of October, that the enemy so far had had the worst of the struggle, having been forced to evacuate several positions which at the opening of the campaign they held on the Pedee. He said, too, that they had lost more men, officers, and arms than the patriot forces.

Gates found himself at the head of fourteen hundred men, and while Cornwallis was at Charlotte he made ready to dispute the fords of the Yadkin. After the retreat of the enemy, he occupied the post they had given up. While there, he received notice that he had been superseded by Greene and that inquiry was to be made in regard to his conduct at the battle of Camden.

General Nathaniel Greene, the Quaker officer, as I have stated, stood next to Washington in ability, and resembled in many respects the illustrious father of his country.

Greene brought to Gates the first official notice that general received of his dismissal. The new commander expressed his displeasure at the blame that had been cast upon Gates, and said that he would be very glad to serve under him. Not only that, but Greene took special pains to express the same chivalrous opinion to the officers and soldiers, assuring them that the censure of their leader was founded on an imperfect knowledge of the facts.

On the 2d of December Greene arrived at head-quarters, and the next morning Gates turned over the command to him. His superior had acted so thoughtfully throughout that Gates was touched, and did all he could to return the courtesy.

Meeting of Washington and Rochambeau

WASHINGTON'S FIRST MEETING WITH ROCHAMBEAU

CHAPTER XII.

1780. THE CAMPAIGN IN THE NORTH—TREASON OF ARNOLD.

LITTLE improvement followed the close of the terrible winter of 1779–80. Washington was never more anxious than during those dreadful months, when the scarcity of food and other troubles filled the army with discontent. The soldiers, it is said, ate every kind of horse food except hay; they were in rags, and the misery was so great that many deserted. Congress did little if any thing to relieve their distress. Though nominally there were thirty-five thousand men at the disposal of the commander-in-chief, the actual number was much less. After re-enforcements had been sent to South Carolina, the total force in the state of New York and the neighborhood was less than ten thousand. Washington asked that a committee of congress might be appointed to look after the wants of the army. Such a committee was named, and it spent a number of weeks in the camp, but did nothing toward abating the most crying evils.

In the latter part of April, Washington wrote to the American General Howe that his men were close upon starvation. Two weeks after, Nathaniel Greene, the quartermaster-general, told Joseph Reed, the adjutant-general, that the army had not four days' provision of meat, and that the commander-in-chief was dismayed by the situation. A mutinous feeling spread throughout the army. Two Connecticut regiments paraded under arms on the 25th of May, declaring they would either go home or obtain food at the point of the bayonet. The rest of the troops did not join in the movement, though they sympathized with it. The rebels were finally brought back to duty by the persuasions of their officers. Requisitions were often made on the people of New Jersey, who at last lost patience. No higher tribute can be paid to the ability and worth of Washington than the fact that in the face of such trials he was able to hold his forces together.

Washington was cheered by the return of the Marquis de Lafayette, in April, with good news. The French government had fitted out an armament of naval and land forces that was soon to be sent to the United States. The fleet was commanded by the Chevalier de Ternay, and Count de Rochambeau was at the head of the land forces. Heretofore there had been some ill feeling between the French allies and the Americans, but by a piece of good taste and foresight this was now guarded against by the French government, which ordered Rochambeau and his troops to place themselves in every case under the direction of Washington, who was made a lieutenant-general in the French army. It was decreed further that American officers should command French officers of equal rank, and in all military acts or capitulations the American generals were to sign first.

Before the arrival of the French fleet, General Knyphausen (commanding in New York during the absence of Clinton in the South) was induced to make a raid into New Jer-

sey. Somebody led him to believe that the people there were so disaffected that they were waiting to receive him with open arms. On the 6th of June, therefore, he led six thousand soldiers from Staten Island to Elizabethtown, New Jersey, and marched the next day toward Springfield. The Hessian general was not long in finding that he had committed a great blunder. The militia under Colonel Elias Dayton, and regular troops under General William Maxwell, collected fast and offered such resistance that he saw the wisest course for him was to retreat without delay.

Before doing so the invaders burned the village of Connecticut Farms, seven miles beyond Elizabethtown. The wife of the minister, Rev. James Caldwell, was shot dead through the window, while sitting among her children. It is generally believed that this was the deed of some wanton soldier, instead of the accident which others claimed.

Knyphausen, greatly disappointed by his reception, and learning that Washington was marching against him, lost no time in retiring. He held the road from Elizabethtown to De Hart's Point, on the Kill van Kull. Because of these events Washington drew his army nearer the Hudson, taking a position from which he could act promptly in the defense of New Jersey or of the New York highlands.

On the return of Sir Henry Clinton from the South, in the latter part of June, he led an expedition from Elizabethtown to Springfield, New Jersey, but was combated with great bravery and skill by General Greene. Though Greene's force was but a fractional part of that of Clinton, he compelled the latter to retreat, as Knyphausen had been forced to do a short time before. Rev. Mr. Caldwell, whose wife had been shot a few days before, was chaplain of Dayton's militia. When the soldiers ran short of wadding he distributed Bibles and hymn books among them, with the exhortation—

"Give them Watts, boys!"

The French fleet, consisting of eight ships-of-the-line, arrived off Rhode Island on the 10th of July. It brought word that a second division would shortly follow, but it never came. A few days later, Lafayette reached Newport from the American headquarters, to consult with his countrymen about the campaign. He took with him a plan of operations drawn up by Washington and addressed to Count Rochambeau. It proposed an attack on the enemy in New York, but was based on the belief that the French fleet was to be stronger than the British fleet.

The plan was a good one, but it was spoiled by the arrival from England of Admiral Graves with six ships-of-the-line, which, added to those already here, made the British fleet much the stronger. It was agreed, therefore, by Washington and his allies to wait for re-enforcements. The commander-in-chief was not sorry, for he thereby gained time to strengthen his own army, which was still discouragingly weak.

Having superior numbers, Sir Henry Clinton determined to strike a sudden blow against the French at Newport. Six thousand troops embarked on the 27th of July, and sailed to Huntington Bay, Long Island. But Washington by this time had received large re-enforcements, and he made ready to take advantage of Clinton's absence from New York, by moving against the city. He crossed the Hudson and advanced southward. In all probability he would have attacked, had not Clinton, who saw his danger, hastily returned. Nevertheless, Admiral Arbuthnot blockaded the

French squadron in Newport harbor, thus compelling the whole French force to stay there to protect the fleet. Washington recrossed the Hudson and encamped below Tappan, where he remained until winter;

TARLETON'S LIEUTENANT AND THE FARMER.

Clinton stayed in New York, the two armies closely watching each other. On the 21st of September Washington for the first time met Rochambeau at Hart-

ford. They discussed the plans for the next campaign, without, however, fixing on any definite scheme. Out of compliment to their French allies, and as typical of the unity of the two nations, the American officers adopted the fashion of wearing cockades of black and white, the former being the American color and the latter the French. There, as well as at head-quarters, Washington was careful to gain the esteem of his fastidious friends.

The Marquis de Chastellux wrote home in the most complimentary language of the soldier-like behavior of the American officers, of their politeness and charming manners. He referred especially to the handsome equipage of the noble commander-in-chief, of the battalion of guards, of the numerous grooms holding fine horses, of the neat and well-ordered camp and splendid discipline. Had he described things as they really were, how different would have been his language!

We must now relate one of the most horrifying events in the war of the Revolution — the treason of Benedict Arnold. You have already learned something of him in the earlier history of the war. He was a born soldier, quick of resources, and fearless, but proud, cruel, vain, overbearing, extravagant and lacking in moral sense. His treason was carefully planned, and had it succeeded, it might have been a mortal blow to the independence of America.

Arnold's daring always placed him in the front rank of danger. Having been wounded several times, he was forced to withdraw for awhile from service. In 1778, when Sir Henry Clinton evacuated Philadelphia, he was appointed to the command of the city. While there, he married a young lady noted for her beauty and accomplishments. She was a strong loyalist, and perhaps this fact had some influence over the opinions of Arnold.

The American officer, as I have said, was extravagant in his personal habits. He was so offensive to many of the Philadelphians that they brought charges against him of neglect of duty and abuse of power. These charges were investigated before a court-martial, and on the 20th of January, 1779, Arnold was acquitted of the principal charges, but found guilty on the others. His sentence was that he should be publicly reprimanded by the commander-in-chief. This was mortifying to such a high-spirited man as Arnold, but he was exasperated still more when several large claims that he brought against the United States for expenses incurred by his Canadian expedition, were disallowed.

Whether previous to this time Arnold intended to betray his country can not be known, but the probability is that the curt treatment he received and his pressing debts suggested the shocking thought. Be that as it may, he began in 1779 a secret correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton.

You must not suppose that the two officers wrote to each other in plain terms, over their own signatures. You know that men engaged in such business take every care to hide all evidence of it. Had General Washington picked up one of the letters and read it through, he would not have suspected its fearful meaning. The language was such that only those in the secret understood what it meant.

Arnold disguised his hand and signed his letters "Gustavus." The correspondence

EXPLOIT OF BENEDICT ARNOLD.

was carried on through Major John André, who at that time was Sir Henry's aid-de-camp and afterward his adjutant-general. The wife of Arnold was a great favorite with the British officers while in the city. After their withdrawal, Major André corresponded with her, and some have suspected that Arnold by this means opened communication with André. That, however, could hardly have been done without letting the wife into the secret, and the whole course of the business shows that she was innocent of all knowledge of it.

"Gustavus" sent his letters to André, who replied over the signature of "John Anderson." They wrote as though interested in some commercial transactions. For months "Gustavus" simply told "John Anderson" about important military movements on the part of the Americans. This knowledge went straight to Clinton, who found in every case that the news was correct and of value. He was given to understand that still more important information would soon be at his disposal.

Of course André and Clinton were curious to know who was sending these letters in a hand disguised with such extreme care. It was clear that he was some important officer in the American army, for no one else could know so much of the plans of the patriot leaders. Several facts pointed to Arnold as the secret correspondent. He was known to be without employment; he was sulking over his treatment from his government; he was piling up enormous personal debts by his extravagant living, and all the business in which he engaged turned out badly. The suspicion of Clinton soon became certainty: Benedict Arnold was the one who was holding the treasonable correspondence with him.

Washington, knowing Arnold to be a soldier of ability and bravery, wished to make use of him in the campaign of 1780. This would have interfered with the scheme the latter was shaping, and with many expressions of patriotism he plead his inability, because of his wounds, to enter into active service. He asked, however, for the command at West Point, which gave him charge also of all the other posts in the highlands of New York, and he had no difficulty in securing the appointment. It was understood between him and Clinton that at the earliest moment all the posts should be betrayed to the commander-in-chief of the British forces, "in such a manner as to contribute every possible advantage to his majesty's arms." These being the very words used by Arnold, there can be no mistake as to his purpose.

Arnold arrived at West Point early in August. The following month Washington, as you have been told, went to Hartford, to consult with Rochambeau. This gave the traitor the very chance for which he was waiting, and he did his best to carry out his bargain.

You must bear in mind that though the crime of Benedict Arnold was one of the basest of which any man can be guilty, there was nothing in the course of Sir Henry Clinton not in accord with the rules of war. He would have been foolish indeed not to have made the best possible use of means of success thrown in his way. His presence in America was to subdue the revolt of the colonies, and Arnold offered to give him great help. If he carried out his part of the bargain, Clinton would secure command of the Hudson and open free communication between New York and Canada

through that river and the lakes. From the first Washington was very desirous of preventing this, and, as I have said, the success of Arnold's scheme would probably have been fatal to the patriot cause.

Aside from the moral results of such a betrayal, it included the surrender of garrisons numbering in all more than three thousand men, over a hundred guns, and enormous quantities of provisions and stores. In the needy condition of the Continental army, this loss would have been irreparable.

The plan of Arnold was vast and far reaching, but it was difficult to carry out; for, though he would have been glad to surrender his whole command to the invaders, as he would have handed it over to a superior officer, he could not do so. The American soldier is never willingly the tool of base men, and one of the first necessities was that the patriots themselves should be deceived up to the last moment.

Again it was impossible for the treason to be perfected without a personal interview between Arnold and an agent of Clinton, in which these two might fully discuss the situation and reach a clear understanding. It was evident that Major André was the proper one to act for Clinton, and Arnold of course would act for himself.

The only other person in the British army in the secret was Colonel Beverly Robinson, commanding a Tory regiment. The arch-traitor trusted no one with the least knowledge of his villainy. Robinson's house was on the east side of the Hudson, opposite West Point, and was occupied by Arnold as his head-quarters.

Clinton sent the sloop-of-war *Vulture* up the river, and it anchored far enough from the American posts to quiet all suspicion as to its object, but near enough to give help in the negotiations which had reached a delicate and critical point. On the evening of September 20th, André accompanied by Colonel Beverly Robinson went on board this vessel.

It was not yet clear how Arnold and André could meet without causing suspicion.

Arnold was too cunning to draw suspicion to himself by going on board the *Vulture:* that would have been too unusual a proceeding to be easily explained. The only course, therefore, was to bring André within the American lines.

Arnold had invited the young officer to do so, under the guise of a merchant named John Anderson. Colonel Sheldon, in charge of one of the lower posts in Westchester County was directed to receive and conduct such a visitor to head-quarters. The risk of this step was too great, and André very properly refused to take it. His real character was likely to be discovered and a disgraceful death was certain to follow. André declined the proposal, and offered to meet the American commander at Dobbs Ferry. Arnold made the attempt, but there was a slip somewhere in the arrangements: he was fired on by the guard-boats and came very near being taken prisoner.

This was a little too warm to be pleasant. Arnold was becoming impatient. He urged André to pass inside the lines, and agreed that a trusty person should meet him at Dobbs Ferry and bring him to a place of safety, where the meeting could be held. This guide, of course, need not suspect the real nature of the business. Believing Arnold to be a patriot, he would do as directed, never suspecting any thing wrong.

At the same time that André was urged to place himself under the direction of the

WASHINGTON AND HIS MOTHER.

From the painting by Fournier.

guide at Dobbs Ferry, he was told that, if he had changed his mind and was willing to take the risk of riding openly to head-quarters, he would find that the officer in charge at North Castle would furnish him with an escort, such instructions having been given by Arnold himself.

But there was no danger of André taking the latter course. Sir Henry Clinton, seeing the peril in which his favorite officer would place himself, ordered him not to enter the American lines, to accept no papers, and under no circumstances to assume a disguise. Well would it have been for André had he obeyed these orders.

André was strongly attached to his commander-in-chief and saw the wisdom of his directions. Refusing, therefore, to cross the "danger line," he remained under the protection of the British flag on board the *Vulture*, which lay off shore just above Sing Sing.

All danger would have been avoided if the interview had been held under a flag of truce. With that object in view, Colonel Robinson sent a letter from the *Vulture* to General Arnold, asking for an interview respecting some confiscated property. It happened that this letter was placed in Arnold's hands at a time when Washington was making him a call. Arnold read it over, and handing it to the commander-in-chief, asked his advice about granting the interview. Washington told him that as the case was clearly one for the civil authorities, he ought to refuse it.

Afraid to disregard this advice, Arnold induced Mr. Joshua H. Smith, who lived within the American lines, to row out to the *Vulture* at night and deliver a package directed to Robinson, but intended for André, whom Arnold knew to be on board the sloop. Smith expected to bring back Robinson, the Tory colonel, while the latter and André himself supposed that Arnold was in the little boat which approached them through the darkness with muffled oars. The latter, however, meant that all the personal risk should be taken by André.

The latter now found himself in a peculiarly trying situation. Arnold having refused to visit the *Vulture*, it was necessary that André should go to him, or the momentous scheme would have to be given up. Days and weeks had passed, and the negotiations were brought to a point where the final step could be arranged only by a personal interview. Great reward, glory and the gratitude of England awaited the British adjutant-general if he should succeed.

But the meeting with Arnold could be brought about only by disobeying the orders of Sir Henry Clinton. It is said that both Colonel Robinson and the captain of the *Vulture* advised André not to go ashore. He hesitated a few minutes and then yielding to the dazzling temptation, stepped into the small boat and was rowed away in the darkness. He had on his uniform, but it was hidden under a long overcoat and he still kept the character of John Anderson.

The boat rowed silently through the gloom, until it touched the western bank, at the foot of Long Clove Mountain, six miles below Stony Point. André with his overcoat wrapped about him stepped ashore, and walking to the bushes was met by a short, sturdy man in military cloak, who greeted him in a low voice. Then the two walked back among the bushes where, out of sight, they discussed the scheme.

I have often pictured that eventful night of the 21st of September, 1780. You know that the Hudson is often called the Rhine of America, for it is one of the most beautiful and romantic streams in the world. You can imagine Benedict Arnold standing at the base of the Long Clove Mountain, waiting for the return of the boat that had rowed out to the British sloop-of war. As he stood peering out into the darkness, what must have been his thoughts, when he caught the faint ripple of the oars and saw the outline of the boat as it softly touched the shore? His heart must have throbbed strangely when he observed the approaching figure of Major André. If only some good angel had whispered in the ear of Arnold at that moment, what pain and disgrace might have been saved himself and the American nation!

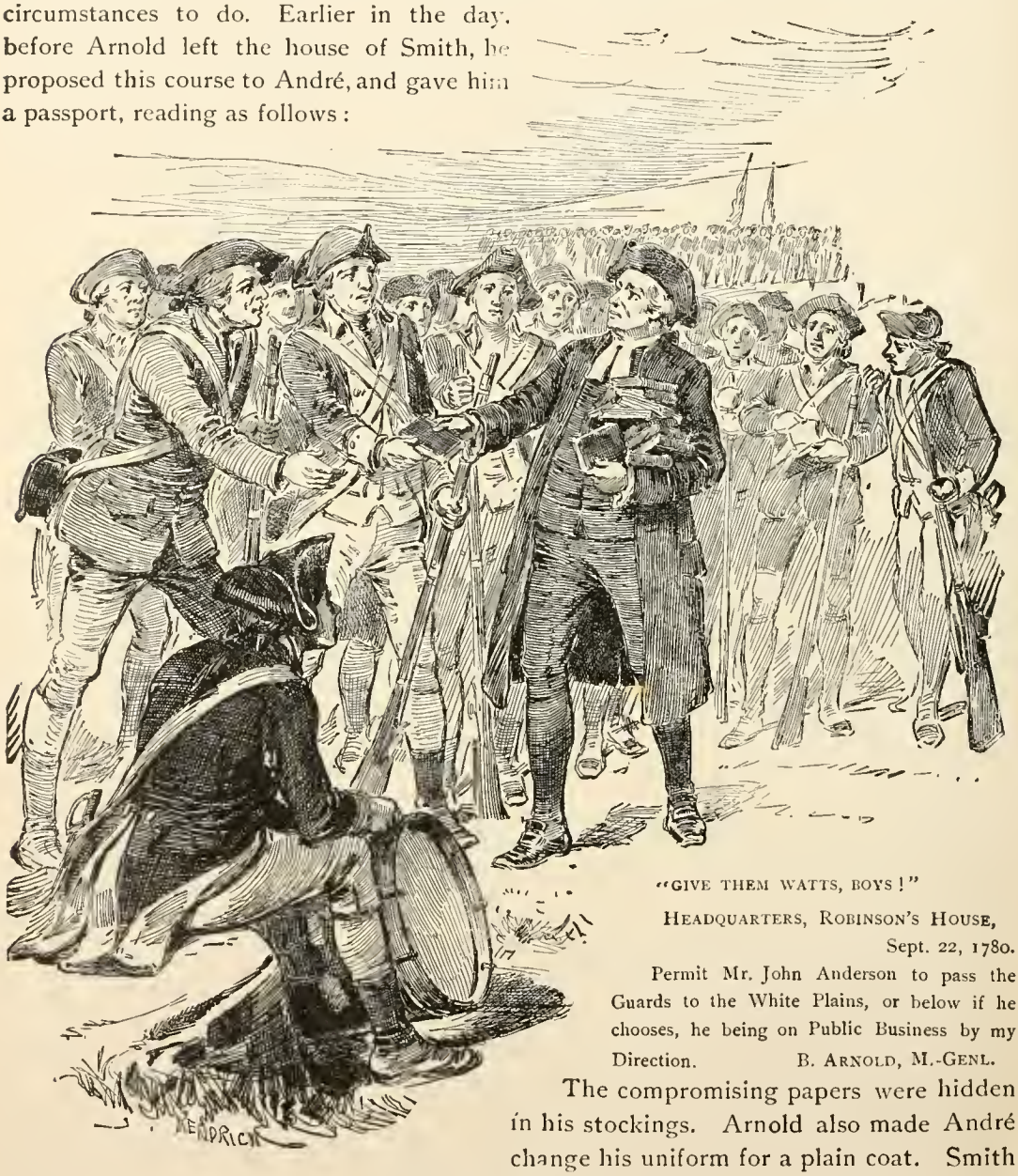
The hours dragged on until it began to grow light over the wooded mountains on the other shore. Smith walked to the bushes and warned the conspirators that it was unsafe either for them or the boat to wait any longer. But the interview between Arnold and André was not yet finished at daylight, and Smith took André to his own house, about three miles distant, within the American lines. Arnold seems to have expected some such issue, for he had a horse ready and had induced Smith some days before to send his family from home.

There is uncertainty over what followed the interview at the foot of Long Clove Mountain. Years afterward, Smith published in England an account of the part he took in the business, stating that Arnold urged him and the boatmen to take their passenger back to the *Vulture*, but the boatmen—two brothers named Colquhoun—refused because they did not like the look of the proceedings. Indeed, they would not have rowed out to the British vessel, in the first place, had not Arnold threatened them with arrest. These brothers, on the trial of Smith, declared that they did not see Arnold at all; that Smith simply asked them whether they were willing to row back to the sloop and they answered in the negative. André said that he did not know what was being done, until he was taken to Smith's house.

Be that as it may, the British adjutant-general went thither, and he and Arnold completed the business. It was decided that the enemy should make an attack on West Point on the 24th or 25th of the month, and that Arnold should surrender the place. The passwords and signals were all agreed upon. As it was possible that Washington himself would be at head-quarters at that time, it is believed that one part of Arnold's atrocious scheme was the capture of the commander-in-chief. The American traitor gave to André, for Sir Henry Clinton, a number of maps, plans and papers relating to the fortress, pointing out the weakest points in the works and the positions to which the patriot troops would be ordered in the British attack.

Meanwhile, the *Vulture* had attracted notice, and Colonel James Livingston opened a cannonade from Teller's (now Underhill's) Point. André witnessed this from the windows of Smith's house, and felt that he would give any thing in the world were he back on the sloop, which dropped down stream, but came up again toward evening. Arnold was gone, and the spy was in the hands of Smith, who refused to take his charge out to the vessel. Smith knew that the *Vulture* was closely watched, and that the moment he ventured on the river with the small boat he would be fired upon.

By this time, André saw the frightful mistake he had made. There remained but one way to get back to Sir Henry Clinton: that was by riding through the country to New York—the very thing that his commander-in-chief had forbidden him under any circumstances to do. Earlier in the day, before Arnold left the house of Smith, he proposed this course to André, and gave him a passport, reading as follows:



"GIVE THEM WATTS, BOYS!"

HEADQUARTERS, ROBINSON'S HOUSE,
Sept. 22, 1780.

Permit Mr. John Anderson to pass the Guards to the White Plains, or below if he chooses, he being on Public Business by my Direction. B. ARNOLD, M.-GENL.

The compromising papers were hidden in his stockings. Arnold also made André change his uniform for a plain coat. Smith was not in the secret, and to quiet any suspicions that he might feel, Arnold told him that it was only vanity on the part of Anderson that led him in the first place to don the uniform of a major, and that the plain coat, furnished by Smith, was the proper apparel for a tradesman.

No other course being possible, André and Smith crossed the river at Verplanck's

Point and began the journey that night. Eight miles down the stream they were told by Captain Boyd, in charge of a patrolling party, that a number of British marauders were in the neighborhood and that it would be wise for them to postpone their journey until morning. André would have been glad had a party of British just then appeared.

The two, however, concluded to push on, and they reached Pine's bridge, over the Croton River, at daylight. There Smith decided to turn

THE TRAITOR'S FLIGHT.

back, after telling his charge to keep on by the most direct route to White Plains. Having got so far toward his destination, André was quite hopeful that he would soon be beyond all danger. Unfortunately for him, however, a party of American militia were scouting through the same section on the lookout for the British marauders.

A half mile above Tarrytown were Isaac Van Wart, John Paulding and David

Williams. Two were sitting in the bushes by the roadside, playing cards, while the third was standing guard. The sound of a horse's hoofs caused the one on watch to run into the road and seize the bridle of the horseman, with a demand for his name and business.

Had André kept his wits about him, he would have been safe. All that he needed to do was to show the pass of General Arnold. Of course he did not know whether the three men were friends or enemies. The pass would have been respected by the patriots, while, had he been stopped by British or Tories, he could have soon set matters right with them. One of the men wore a British coat, having exchanged his own for it while a prisoner some time before in the hands of the English. Led by that, therefore, to think that they were friends, André said quite cheerily,

"Gentlemen, I hope you belong to our party?"

"What party is that?" they asked in return.

"The lower party," was the reply, thereby plainly referring to the British.

"We do," said the men, confident that they had captured a prize.

Thrown entirely off his guard, André then told them that he was a British officer, abroad on particular business and must not be delayed. The three captors looked at each other significantly and told him that he would have to dismount and be searched.

The face of André blanched, for he saw what an awful blunder he had made. He laughed and said he had tried the deception only that he might not be detained. At the same time, he drew out the pass of Arnold and with a trembling hand gave it to his captors. How his heart must have throbbed while they were reading it!

Although it would seem that it ought to have been sufficient, the pass of Arnold did not avail after the explanation made by André. As Paulding afterward testified, the first declaration of their prisoner that he was a British officer, settled his fate. They led him away from the road and searched him. When his boots and stockings were pulled off, the fatal papers were found. As if to trifle with the poor fellow, one of his captors asked him what he would give for his release. He eagerly offered his horse, watch and every thing he had with him, and pledged himself to send them any sum of money they might name.

"No, sir!" exclaimed Paulding, with an oath, "we wouldn't let you go for ten thousand guineas."

André said no more, for he saw it was useless. The nearest military post was North Castle, where Lieutenant-colonel Jameson was in command of a party of dragoons. The captors took their prisoner thither, and gave up the papers found upon him. Jameson was too much astounded and bewildered to act intelligently in the matter. The proof of the character of John Anderson was before him, but so also was the pass of Arnold whose handwriting he recognized. Common sense ought to have led him to keep the discovery from the commanding officer until the truth could be learned. Although there was little chance of finding Washington, who was supposed to be somewhere on the road between Hartford and West Point, he sent a messenger to him with the papers. He then most unwisely detailed a guard to take the prisoner to General Arnold, with a letter, giving the particulars of his arrest.

Major Benjamin Tallmadge showed more discretion than his superior officer.

Returning to camp after a brief absence, and learning what had been done, he protested vehemently against sending the prisoner to Arnold. No doubt Tallmadge suspected the shocking truth, and saw that the surest means had been taken to secure the escape of the arch-traitor. He succeeded in persuading Jameson to dispatch a messenger ordering André to be delivered to the custody of Captain Hoogland at Lower Salem. Nothing, however, could induce Jameson to recall the letter that had been forwarded to Arnold himself.

After parting with André on the 22d, Arnold had gone to West Point, and afterward to his head-quarters at Colonel Robinson's house. He was there on the 25th, and was sitting at breakfast with two of Washington's aids, when a messenger placed Jameson's letter in his hands. The commander-in-chief had intended to take breakfast with Arnold, but being delayed on the road, sent forward his two aids-de-camp.

Arnold managed to hide the fearful emotion the letter caused. Excusing himself, he said that he was summoned to West Point by business of urgent importance. He asked them to make the proper explanations to Washington, and, rising from the table, ordered his horse to be got ready at once. He then signaled to his wife to follow him to their chamber. The instant they were alone, he told her they must part at once and probably never would meet again. His life depended on his reaching the British lines without a moment's delay.

The horrified wife fell to the floor in a swoon. Arnold raised her in his arms, carried her down-stairs, and quickly kissed her and their sleeping baby. Calling the lieutenant who had brought the letter, he left his wife to his care, ran out of doors, sprang into the saddle of the lieutenant's horse, and sped away to the river.

His boat and several rowers were waiting there. Stepping inside, he told them to pull with all haste to the *Vulture* down stream, as it was necessary that he should go there under a flag of truce. He swung his white handkerchief above his head, thus protecting himself from being fired on by his own men along shore. In a few minutes he was safe on board the *Vulture*.

The messenger dispatched by Lieutenant-colonel Jameson with the papers to Washington failed to find him, and the commander-in-chief, who was returning from Hartford, reached Arnold's headquarters with no thought of the perfidy of that officer. Mrs. Arnold gave no explanation of her distress, and the commander-in-chief, having received the message left by Arnold, decided to follow him to West Point. While being rowed up the stream to the magnificent site of the fortress, Washington was impressed with the beauty of the scenery, and, looking from side to side, said:

"On the whole, I am glad that General Arnold has gone ahead; he will give us a salute, and the boom of the cannon will produce a fine effect among these mountains."

Their boat was moving obliquely across the Hudson, and they looked expectantly up the cliffs for the white puffs, followed by the resounding roar of the artillery. But the iron-throated guns were silent.

Washington, who always insisted on due respect being shown his position, was displeased.

While they were still wondering, an officer hurried down the rocks to meet them.

As the commander-in-chief stepped ashore, the officer apologized, saying he had been taken quite by surprise.

"How is this, sir?" demanded Washington; "is not General Arnold here?"

"No, sir," was the reply; "he has not been here for two days, nor have I received any word from him."

"This is extraordinary," said Washington; "but, as we are here, we will look around us."

The works were carefully inspected, and satisfied with their condition, the commander-in-chief and his companions were rowed across the river again to Arnold's head-quarters. During their absence the messenger of Jameson had reached the house and handed the papers to Colonel Hamilton. The latter opened them. To him the whole atrocious plot became as clear as the sun at mid day. As soon as Washington returned, Hamilton took him aside and placed the papers in his hands. He examined them carefully, and realizing their dreadful meaning, bitterly exclaimed,

"Whom can we trust now?"

Then, with that serenity which was one of the most remarkable traits of the great man, he led the way to the dinner table, and, without any appearance of excitement, said:

"Come, gentlemen, since Mrs. Arnold is not well and the general is absent, we will sit down without ceremony."

With the exception of his aid Hamilton, the only officers to whom he spoke about the affair were Lafayette and Knox. The situation was painful in the extreme. Mrs. Arnold was frantic in her grief. She raved up and down her room, crying, wringing her hands, bemoaning her fate, and lamenting the imprudence of her husband.

The commander-in-chief and his officers expressed tender pity for her, but nothing could assuage her grief. It was impossible to believe that she had any previous knowledge of the guilt of her husband.

Arnold wrote to Washington from the *Vulture*, begging for kind treatment of his unhappy wife. He asked no favor for himself, but prayed that she should be guarded from the insults to which a mistaken vengeance might expose her. In the latter part of the year she was allowed to join her husband in New York.

André had been at Lower Salem only a short time at first under the charge of Captain Hoogland and then under Major Tallmadge, when he decided to tell the whole truth to Washington. Accordingly, he wrote to him on the 24th of September, saying he was Major André, adjutant-general in the British army, confessing in general terms the business that led him to West Point, and declaring that he had no intention of entering the American lines, but was betrayed "into the vile condition of an enemy in disguise." He did not refer to Arnold, and begged whatever severity might be shown him, he should not be branded with dishonor, as his only motive had been the service of his king. He suggested also the manner by which an exchange could be effected. Washington paid no attention to the letter.

Shortly afterward, André was removed to West Point and then to the head-quarters of the army at Tappan on the west side of the Hudson, where the case was referred to

a court of inquiry, instructed to report the facts and to advise what punishment was due. The laws of war gave the right to hang André as a spy, taken in the fact, but it was thought best to have an investigation. It is well that this course was taken, for although in every respect an estimable young man, it established to the satisfaction of all that his fate was deserved.

General Greene was president of the court, and his associates were the best that could have been selected for the purpose. They were twelve Americans and two foreign officers—Baron Steuben and the Marquis de Lafayette.

The most strenuous efforts were made to save André. Before the investigation,

ARNOLD'S TREASON. ARNOLD PERSUADES ANDRÉ TO CONCEAL THE PAPERS IN HIS BOOTS.

which took place on the 29th of September, Colonel Beverly Robinson and General Clinton addressed letters to Washington in which they strove to prove that André was under the protection of a flag of truce sent by General Arnold. In the letter of Clinton was inclosed one written by Arnold, who asserted the same thing. He assumed the responsibility of André's start homeward by land and his use of a false name. With an effrontery which is amazing, he added, "all which I had then a right to do, being in the actual service of America, under the orders of General Washington, and commanding general at West Point and its dependencies."

The court of inquiry did not take long to complete its business. It showed great delicacy toward André, begging him not to consider himself bound to answer any ques

tion that might prove embarrassing. It was from the voluntary statements, therefore, of the spy himself that the court reached its decision. André awakened much sympathy by his efforts to shield others by taking all the blame upon himself. But personal sympathy could not control the judgment of such men as composed the court of inquiry. In but the single session it was decided that Major André was a spy, and according to the law and usage of nations, should suffer death. André received the verdict with calmness.

The case was now in the hands of Washington; he could confirm, annul, or change the judgment of the court of inquiry. Few persons ever had stronger friends than André. Clinton wrote to our commander-in-chief saying, that he had appointed General Robertson, together with the lieutenant-governor and the chief justice of New York, to confer with his excellency, or such representatives as he might name, on the subject of Major André's position.

These persons attended by Colonel Beverly Robinson, went to Dobbs' Ferry on the morning of the 1st of October. As General Robertson was, with the exception of Colonel Robinson, the only military officer, he alone was allowed to land. General Greene appeared for Washington, and the two had a long interview, in which, as you may well believe, the merits of the case were fully discussed.

The argument was based on the disputed fact whether André, on landing from the *Vulture*, was or was not under the protection of a flag of truce. Arnold insisted that he was, but Arnold was a traitor and was allowed no standing in court. Above all, however, the fact remained that André himself had declared at the investigation that it was impossible for him to believe that he was under the sanction of a flag of truce when he left the side of the *Vulture*.

You know what fine spun theories are drawn by men versed in the law, but I am sure the simple fact is clear to you that, even if it be admitted that André went ashore under a flag of truce, it was never meant by any nation that flags of truce should cover such business as that which led him thither. You can readily see also the strength of the American argument that from the moment Arnold's treason took shape, he ceased to be one of our officers, as he had then entered the service of the king, and it was idle to claim the contrary. But the admission of André himself removed all ground for making such claim.

General Robertson offered to exchange for André any prisoner whom the Americans might name, and also asked to have the questions referred to the judgment of General Knyphausen and Count Rochambeau, who, as foreign officers arrayed against each other in the American war, could be relied upon to reach a calm decision. Washington was not influenced by these arguments and offers.

The execution of André, which had been ordered for the 1st of October, was postponed for a day to permit this discussion. On the morning of the 2d, Robertson received a note from General Greene, saying that General Washington saw no reason for changing his determination. Robertson at once wrote to Washington direct, repeating the arguments he had used with Greene, and adding that Sir Henry Clinton would be "infinitely obliged" by the liberation of the prisoner, and that he (Robertson) would hold

himself ready forever after to do any thing within his power to show his gratitude: this appeal produced no more effect than the others.

The thought occurred to me, and probably will to you at the first reading of the story of Arnold's treason, why was not André exchanged for Arnold?

Captain Aaron Ogden, who carried the letters from Washington and André to the British posts at Paulus Hook, hinted to an English officer that such an exchange would be agreeable. Ogden said this at the suggestion of Lafayette, but Washington never authorized any such proposal. During the conference between Greene and Robertson, the former intimated the only course by which André could be saved: Robertson replied with a look of scorn, and the proposition was not repeated.

No doubt Clinton valued André a thousand fold above the detestable traitor who had come to him, but as Arnold was there in accordance with a bargain between him and the British commander-in-chief, Clinton would have violated his honor and earned everlasting infamy by sending him back to the American lines.

André having resigned all hope begged Washington that he might be shot instead of hanged. It seems pitiful that this prayer could not be granted, but Greene rightfully insisted that any mitigation of the sentence would imply a doubt of its justice.

André was hanged on the 2d of October, 1780. He bandaged his eyes with his own hands and died like a brave man. During the half hour that his body hung motionless between heaven and earth, an awe-struck stillness rested on the assemblage. His remains were buried near by, but were removed to England in 1821, and now rest in Westminster Abbey. A mural table was erected to his memory by George III., who caused an inscription to be placed thereon referring to him as "one who fell a sacrifice to his zeal for his king and country."

A pension was conferred by England on André's mother, and his brother was created a baronet.

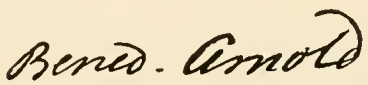
In striking contrast to the sympathy shown for André during the trial and the respect to his memory after his execution was the treatment of Nathan Hale, a patriot spy arrested in disguise within the enemy's lines in New York City. Like André he was young, brave and intelligent, but unlike André he was in search simply of information concerning the enemy, and not endeavoring to purchase with gold what the Americans were unable to win with the sword.

He was treated with the greatest indignity and was hanged without a trial. "I regret only that I have but one life to give my country," were his words when led to the scaffold.

The rage against Benedict Arnold burned in the breast of every patriot in America. No possible excuse could be found for his crime, for treason must always be among the chief of crimes, and to many it seemed he had earned a hundred deaths. Washington was stirred with such profound indignation that he determined on an attempt to capture him. He stated his purpose to Major Henry Lee ("Light Horse Harry," the father of General Robert E. Lee of the Confederate army), who arranged the enterprise.

It was desperate indeed, and he who undertook it must of necessity carry his life in his hands; but Lee found the man he needed in the person of John Champe, an athletic

young sergeant-major of cavalry. Major Lee aroused the sergeant's thirst for fame by impressing him with the glory of the act he proposed to him. It was arranged that he should join General Arnold as a deserter from the Americans; that he should engage in the corps that Arnold was raising, and contrive to get employment near him; that a correspondence should be kept up with a certain person in Newark who had connections with the British, but who was a true patriot, and through him would be made plans for the co-operation of those within the American lines. When every thing was ready,



PORTRAIT AND AUTOGRAPH OF GENERAL ARNOLD. (*The Portrait is from that of Du Similier*, 1783.)

Arnold was to be seized in the night, gagged and carried across the Hudson into the Bergen woods in New Jersey. Washington insisted that Arnold should be taken alive, for his assassination would have been unjustifiable, and the commander-in-chief wanted to hang him as an example to any one else who might be meditating treason.

On the night of October 20th, one of the American patrols observed Sergeant Champe riding near and challenged him. Instead of replying, he put spurs to his horse, escaping the shot that was fired after him. Word was instantly taken to Major Lee, who had retired. It seemed difficult to awake him, and when aroused, it was more difficult to make him believe that Sergeant Champe had deserted. In fact, the major managed to cause so much delay that it was a full hour before the pursuers started.

When they set out, however, they lost no time. The party were obliged to stop now and then to examine the hoof tracks in the road, so as to make sure of the direction taken by the fugitive; but they were better mounted than he, and just as it was growing light, they caught sight of him ascending a hill about half a mile away.

PORTRAIT AND AUTOGRAPH OF MAJOR ANDRE.

Champe urged his horse to the utmost, but his pursuers gained fast, and Cornet Middleton, in command of the troop, was almost upon him when the hard-pressed fugitive leaped from his steed, ran through a marsh, plunged into the river just beyond Bergen and swam for life toward two British galleys that lay at anchor in the stream. While

his pursuers were firing at him, Champe was shouting for help, and a boat was sent off, which quickly placed him on board one of the galleys.

Champe carried out his part of the scheme with rare courage and discretion. He enlisted in Arnold's corps, and thus, being near the traitor, became familiar with his habits. He found that it was his custom every night to pace back and forth in the garden at the rear of his quarters. Champe, through his confederate in Newark, kept Major Lee informed, and finally fixed the night when he would seize Arnold and hurry with him to the river side.

On the night named, Lee with three dragoons and three led horses was in the woods, anxiously awaiting the arrival of the boat with the daring Champe and his prisoner; but the hours passed and no dip of oars was heard, nor could the straining eyes catch the outlines of the expected boat. At daylight it was clear that something had gone amiss, and Lee rode back to camp believing that Champe had been detected and hanged.

Many were the marvelous escapes of Benedict Arnold. On the very day preceding the night fixed for his abduction, he changed his quarters to another part of the town. Champe was sent on a distant expedition with the American Legion, and it was a long time before he was able to get away and resume his proper place among the soldiers of the Union. He was well paid for the great risk he ran, and for the pain it must have caused him to know that his former friends looked upon him as a deserter.

Paulding, Williams and Van Wart, who captured André, were not forgotten by their country, and Washington recommended them to congress for a handsome gratuity. Besides a vote of thanks each was given a farm, an annual pension of two hundred dollars for life, and a silver medal bearing on one side an escutcheon engraved with the word "Fidelity," and on the other the motto, "Vincit amor patriæ." The latter expression means "the love of country conquers." The medals were delivered to the men by Washington at his head-quarters.

While negotiating with Sir Henry Clinton, Benedict Arnold made it a condition of his treason that he should be paid the personal losses that he claimed to have suffered by his services in the cause of American liberty. These amounted to six thousand three hundred and fifteen pounds sterling, and that sum was paid to him. After the war, he took his family to England, where his wife and children were pensioned for life, the sons receiving also commissions in the English army.

Benedict Arnold died in London in 1801, despised by almost every one. It is said that when he appeared on the streets he was pointed out as the man who had betrayed his country, and was hooted at by the boys. His wife survived him about three years.

Commodore Charles Stewart (known as "Old Ironsides") told me that the earliest incident in his life that he could recall was that of seeing Arnold burned in effigy in Philadelphia in 1781. No language is too strong in which to express the detestation felt for his crime.

The Desertion of Champe

DESERTION OF CHAMPE

CHAPTER XIII.

1781. THE CAMPAIGN IN THE SOUTH.

YOU can well understand the distrust caused by the treason of Benedict Arnold. Other officers were suspected, but a strict investigation showed no grounds for such suspicion. Knowing that Arnold would be sure to tell Sir Henry Clinton all he knew about West Point, Washington hurried the completion of the works and threw a strong garrison into them. The command was temporarily given to General Greene, who was ordered to march with the New Jersey, New York, New Hampshire and Stark's brigades, and to take every possible precaution against attack. Washington was with the main body of the army at Preakness, near Passaic Falls, New Jersey.

It was about this time that a court of inquiry was ordered to investigate the conduct of General Gates at Camden, South Carolina. Congress had determined that whatever officer lost a post should be subject to a court of inquiry. The treatment of Gates was rather harsh, as he was degraded and brought to trial without being accused of any military offense. In 1782, however, he was acquitted of all blame and restored to his position in the army.

These proceedings made it necessary that some one should be appointed to succeed Gates. As you have been told, this officer was General Greene, who reached Gates's head-quarters in South Carolina on the 2d of December, 1780, and assumed command the following morning. General Heath became commander at West Point.

Washington knew the sterling qualities of Greene, and had wanted to send him south long before, but congress prevented. Had the commander-in-chief been left to follow his judgment, there would have been a far different story to tell. The appointment of Greene was now urged by the delegates of the three southern states.

"I think I am giving you a general," wrote Washington to one of the South Carolina members; "but what can a general do without men, without arms, without clothes, without stores, without provisions?"

This was not the worst that might have been said. That section was so full of Tories that Greene was in personal danger while on his way to his post of duty; but the brave Quaker general had solemnly vowed, when starting for the south, that he would clear it of its invaders or he would leave his dead body there.

It is much easier to form a good resolution than to carry it out. When Greene contrasted the half-clothed men, the poor weapons, the total lack of discipline, with the superior numbers of the enemy, well disciplined and armed and finely commanded, he might well have given up in despair.

One fact was clear to the new commander: with his weak force, it was folly for him to meet the foe in open battle, for defeat would be certain. Gates's blindness to this truth was the cause of his overthrow. Greene, therefore, determined that while he was forming his army, he would avoid battle. Instead of fighting in a fair field, he would imitate on a large scale, the tactics of Marion and Sumter: that is, he would harass and exasperate his stronger enemy in every possible way.

You must not forget that Marion and Sumter and other famous partisans were galloping back and forth through the swamps and pines of Georgia and the Carolinas, and striking their stealthy and effective blows whenever the chance presented itself.

The first step of Greene was to enforce discipline in his army, which he succeeded in doing only by severe measures. The better to carry on his warfare, he divided his forces into two divisions. General Morgan at the head of a small body of infantry and cavalry, was ordered to go south of the Catawba, where he could observe the positions of the foe, while Greene himself with the main body took post on the east side of the Pedee, opposite the Cheraw Hills, some seventy miles northeast from Wynnesborough where Cornwallis was stationed.

The British post at Ninety-six appeared to be threatened, and Cornwallis sent Colonel Tarleton, with eleven hundred men, including cavalry, artillery and infantry, against Morgan. At the same time, Cornwallis himself marched in a northwesterly direction, so as to check Morgan if he should escape Tarleton. He hoped also to frighten Greene by getting between him and Virginia.

Hearing of Tarleton's approach, Morgan retreated across the Pacolett to Cowpens. There he stopped, resolved to fight. It was a wise course, for his force was nearly as large as that of his enemy, and he could select the ground and make his own dispositions for battle.

On the morning of January 17, 1781, Tarleton assailed him with his usual impetuosity and drove back the first and second of the American lines; but they rallied on the top of the hill, and, led by Colonels Washington and Howard, charged the British ranks with great fury and pursued them to the bottom of the hill, where most of them threw down their arms and cried for quarter.

In his eager pursuit, Colonel Washington, in advance of his troops, was set upon by three mounted officers. Sergeant-major Perry rode up just in time to ward off a blow and slash the sword arm of one of the men, and a young trumpeter shot a second officer who also was on the point of delivering a fatal thrust. The colonel himself parried the blow of the third and slightly wounded him, but received a pistol shot in the knee as his assailant rode away. This last, it is believed, was Tarleton himself.

Morgan had gained a most inspiriting victory. Although Tarleton escaped with a handful of men, he lost a hundred privates and ten commissioned officers killed, more than a hundred wounded, six hundred prisoners, his two guns, his colors, eight hundred muskets, a hundred horses and most of his baggage train. The Americans lost only twelve killed and sixty wounded.

Cornwallis was astounded on learning of the defeat, but he was too good a general to be discouraged. When the news reached him he was at Turkey Creek, twenty-five

miles south of Cowpens. He was thus in reality between Greene and Morgan, and it was of the utmost importance that he should prevent their junction. He had been re-enforced the day before by General Leslie, making his force much the superior. He believed he could beat them in detail, and, therefore, started in hot haste after Morgan, whom he hoped to catch before he could cross the fords of the Catawba.

ESCAPE OF BENEDICT ARNOLD.

Cornwallis prepared for the race by destroying most of his own and his officers' baggage, including a large quantity of food, wine and spirits, and keeping no wagons except those with hospital stores and four empty ones for the wounded. Horses and men were

pressed to the utmost, and the Catawba was reached January 29th, just two hours after the Americans had passed safely over. A heavy rain had set in and the river rose to such a height that Cornwallis had to wait two days before he could cross. During that time Morgan was enabled to send off his prisoners to Charlottesville, Virginia. Relieved of this incumbrance, he made ready to dispute the passage of the river.

His camp was at Sherwood's Ford, where on the 31st of January, General Greene joined him. He had come almost alone, riding in post haste and leaving his division to follow as fast as it could. The British crossed the next day in the face of strong opposition. The race was then kept up to the Yadkin, where a sharp fight took place between a body of American riflemen and the advanced guard of the British army. On the night of the 2d of February Greene crossed the Yadkin, partly by fording and partly by the use of boats and flats. By a singular coincidence, the river again rose to such a height that, the next morning, Cornwallis found it impossible to cross. Unwilling to suffer the delay, he marched twenty-five miles up the south bank of the Yadkin, to a point where the ford was shallow enough to be waded.

You may be sure that Greene made the best use of the time thus gained. He was joined on the 7th of February, near Guilford Court House, by the division that he left at Hicks's Creek, on the east side of the Pedee. By this time, he was close to the southern frontiers of Virginia, his aim being to withdraw into that state, while Cornwallis was putting forth every effort to check him. If Greene could succeed in reaching the Old Dominion, he would be among a more patriotic population, and after he should remove all the boats, the broad river would prove an impassable barrier to pursuit by his enemy.

The most direct road to Virginia was by Dix's Ferry over the river Dan, a branch of the Roanoke; but the British were as near to the ferry as were the patriots, and no boats could be brought up from below, on account of the rapid current. Greene, therefore, shaped his course for the ferries known as Boyd's and Irwin's, which were about seventy miles from Guilford Court House. This route was twenty miles longer than the other, but it was the only one that could be used. Dispatching a detail of men to Dix's Ferry to send the boats there down stream to Boyd's and Irwin's, which were only four miles apart, Greene left Guilford Court House on the 10th of February.

Cornwallis was close upon him, but a corps of American light troops, formed for that purpose, continually harassed him, and on more than one occasion inflicted severe loss. On the 14th of February, the patriots crossed the Dan with their baggage and stores, and at last stood safe on Virginia soil. North Carolina was turned over to the invaders, but Cornwallis had failed entirely in his purpose.

This remarkable flight and pursuit had covered two hundred miles, and was pressed with so much vigor that both armies suffered a great deal from want and fatigue. It rained most of the time, and the soldiers had no tents and were often unable to kindle fires. The condition of the patriots was pitiful. They were barefooted and so ragged that some of them had only a single piece of cloth tied about them. Some weeks before, Greene had written to Reed that his men were living upon charity — that is, by such contributions as were made to them daily. He told Washington that his militiamen were as ragged and naked as Virginia negroes. But the commander-in-

chief could not spare a man, and could send only his sympathy. At that time a Continental paper dollar was worth two cents in copper.

But Washington himself could not have done better than did Greene. His firm discipline was visible throughout the army. Not a sentinel was lost by desertion, and the retreat was conducted with such skill that at its close the army was stronger and in better spirits than when it began.

Cornwallis reached the borders of Virginia, and, finding a broad, deep stream between him and the fugitives, turned about in disgust and went back to Hillsborough, where, on the 20th, he issued a proclamation claiming — what no one could dispute — that he had driven the rebels from the state, and calling on the people to aid him in restoring order and the king's authority.

Greene saw that while he had reason to be thankful over his brilliant retreat, it would not be well for him to stay in Virginia. He could not not drive Cornwallis from North Carolina at such long range, and his abandonment of that state would encourage the Tories and dishearten the patriots. He must make a change of policy.

Four days after crossing the Dan, he sent a detachment of his army back again, and on the 21st and 22d, followed into North Carolina with his main body, re-enforced by six hundred Virginians. He moved toward Guilford Court House, skillfully eluding Cornwallis, who wished to bring on a battle.

One purpose of Greene was to destroy the Tories, who, since the success of the invaders, were so numerous that, in a single day, Cornwallis embodied seven companies of them. The feeling against them was intense, and nothing could exceed the ferocity of the fights between them and the patriots:

I must tell you an extraordinary incident. On the 25th of February a party of these Tories were on their way to the English camp, when they fell in with Greene's vanguard, under Colonel Lee, and mistook them for Tarleton's cavalry, who had been sent to escort them. At the same time, Lee supposed they were a body of militia under General Pickens, whom he was expecting to join him. He quickly discovered his error and galloped on to meet Tarleton, leaving the Tories to be looked after by Pickens, who could not be far off.

Pickens speedily arrived and attacked the Tories, but Lee was so exasperated with these traitors that he wheeled his men about and assaulted them in the rear. This was in a narrow lane near the Haw River. The fight in reality was a massacre. The Tories begged for mercy, but received none. The majority were killed, the rest fleeing in the wildest panic. A mile away they ran into Tarleton, who, supposing them to be provincial militia, fell upon them with such fury that nearly all the rest were killed. This tragical mistake almost stopped the recruiting that was going on in the interest of the invaders.

Cornwallis now retreated in a southwesterly direction from Hillsborough. Greene followed with caution, changing his ground every night, without informing any one previously what position he meant to take. His light infantry scoured the surrounding country, overawing the Tories and gathering valuable knowledge. Marion and Sumter were also at work. On the 6th of March, under cover of a thick fog, the British com-

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ROUT OF THE LOYAL RECRUITS.

Drawn by Francis Christy.

mander crossed the Alamance Creek and headed toward Reedy Fork, where the American light troops and some militia were posted. The detachment fell back and General Greene retreated to the iron works on Troublesome Creek. Several days later he advanced again and took position near Guilford Court House, ten miles from Cornwallis.

By this time Greene's army had increased to over four thousand men, and he felt strong enough to give his enemy battle. His fatal weakness, however, lay in the fact that three-fourths of his soldiers were raw recruits, who could not be relied upon when the shock of battle came. Cornwallis's troops were about two-thirds as numerous, but they were well disciplined and officered and used to victory. General Morgan had been forced to retire in February, because of ill-health. He wrote to Greene that if his militia would stand, they could beat Cornwallis; if not, Cornwallis would cut the regulars to pieces.

Greene chose his battle ground near Guilford Court House, on the 15th of March, and awaited the attack of the enemy, who were eager for battle. The patriot army was deployed in three lines — the first consisting of North Carolina militia under Generals Butler and Eaton; the second of Virginia militia under Stevens and Lawson, and the third entirely of regulars. The lines were separated by a space of three hundred yards, the flanks of the militia being supported by Colonel Washington's cavalry, the legion of Lee, and Campbell's riflemen. The Virginia brigade on the right wing was commanded by General Isaac Huger, while Colonel Otho Williams had charge of the left. The ground in front was open, bordered by trees and fences, behind which the first line was sheltered. Thence the thickly wooded land sloped gradually for half a mile to Guilford Court House. The ground was well chosen, and the men could not have been better placed.

The British column advanced in an unbroken line against the North Carolina militia, who were so frightened at the sight of the enemy with their gleaming muskets, that they delivered a scattering fire, and, then throwing away guns and knapsacks, ran for the woods.

The second line of Virginia militia held their ground until the British made a bayonet charge. Then they too fled for shelter, leaving the third line, made up of regulars, to meet the shock. These numbered sixteen hundred, and their assailants twenty-four hundred.

Lieutenant-colonel Webster, one of the best officers in the British army, having scattered the Virginia militia, charged over the ground they had held and flung his men against the first regiment of Maryland Continentals. They were received with such a steady and destructive fire that they reeled. Before they could recover, the Continentals swept down upon them with the bayonet, hurling them back across a ravine to a hill on the other side, where Webster paused for help.

Immediately, Lieutenant-colonel Stuart, with the first battalion of the guards, followed by other corps, assailed the second Maryland regiment on the left of the first, which just then was out of sight in the woods. The second regiment was forced back, pursued by Stuart, but the first regiment, rushing from cover, made a bayonet charge on Stuart's battalion, and Washington charged with his cavalry. In the brief but terrific

hand-to-hand fight, Stuart was killed by Captain John Smith of the Maryland regiment. It is said that one of Colonel Washington's cavalrymen cut down thirteen of the enemy.

Cornwallis saw that all was lost if his men were repulsed at that point. He at once opened on the Americans with his artillery, though the fire was likely to kill some of his own men. Colonel Webster hurried across the ravine, and again led his troops into the fight. Tarleton with his cavalry and the second battalion of guards joined him, and Greene, seeing that he would be overwhelmed if he remained, began to fall back. Had he known that Lee's legion and Campbell's riflemen were doing fine work against the enemy, he might have held his ground until they could have gone to his help. As it was, he did the wisest thing possible: he retreated in good order to Troublesome Creek, twelve miles distant.

After the cowardly Virginia and North Carolina militia fled, nothing could have surpassed the heroism of those who remained. Of the thirteen hundred reported on the American side as killed, wounded and missing, it is probable that fully three-fourths were on their way to their homes without a scratch, except such as they caught from the briers in their headlong fright. Cornwallis lost more than five hundred in killed and wounded. Among those mortally wounded was Lieutenant-colonel Webster.

Such a victory did the invaders more harm than good. When the news reached England, Fox declared in the House of Commons that another such victory would ruin the army. Greene's force still outnumbered that of Cornwallis, and under the training of that fine general, would soon be ready to give battle again. The English commander saw that retreat was inevitable, mainly because the country had been so devastated that his men would starve if they remained.

This retreat was begun on the 19th of March. Moving by easy stages, he arrived at Wilmington, North Carolina, on the 7th of April. Lord Cornwallis had sent a detachment to take possession of the place some weeks before. At last his exhausted troops found the rest of which they stood in such distressing need.

Matters looked gloomy in the north. Congress, on the 1st of January, had called for an army of thirty-seven thousand regular troops; but the people were weary of the war and recruiting was slow. The several states sent only a part of the number called for, and even these were late in coming and were ignorant of their business as soldiers. They had little clothing, and it was a serious question how they should be fed and armed. Congress had decided to issue no more bills on the credit of the Union, and the states were to provide the needed supplies. This left the army in the south very feeble, while little in the way of active operations was done in the north.

There now appeared a new and alarming danger. The whole Pennsylvania line, numbering nearly two thousand, mutinied in their camp at Morristown. They had often vainly complained to congress that they were left without pay, without clothing, and without food. Furthermore, they asserted that they were kept in camp after their terms of enlistment were ended. They had engaged to serve "for three years or during the war." The three years having expired, they insisted that their term was over; but their officers said that they were bound to serve till peace should be restored.

The first open act of mutiny took place on New Year's day, when at a given signal,

nearly all the non-commissioned officers and privates of the Pennsylvania line paraded under arms and declared that they would march to Philadelphia and get redress from congress or give up the cause. Their officers interposed, and in a collision that followed Captain Billing and several of the mutineers were killed. General Wayne drew his pistols, but several bayonets were instantly thrust against his breast, and he was told that though his men loved and respected him, they would run him through the instant he fired a weapon. They had no thought of going over to the enemy, which they were as ready as ever to fight, but they would submit no longer to their wrongs. The mutineers, numbering thirteen hundred, then elected officers of their own, and with six field pieces, marched from Morristown toward Philadelphia. As soon as congress heard the startling news, a committee was appointed which, with the governor of Pennsylvania and several members of the executive council of the state, set out to meet and calm the insurgents.

Sir Henry Clinton was pleased when he learned of the revolt. He at once sent two agents among them, with the promise of rewards and protection if they would pass within his lines. But the British commander-in-chief mistook the character of the patriots, who seized the agents and turned them over to General Wayne, with the recommendation that he should hang them without delay.

The mutineers reached Trenton on the 9th, and there met the committee of congress. In the course of a few days the difficulty was removed. The committee promised that, with the approval of congress, all who had enlisted "for three years, or during the war," should be discharged; that in cases where the terms of enlistment could not be found, the soldier's oath should be accepted as sufficient evidence; that the men were to receive at once certificates for the depreciation of their pay, and that all arrears should be paid at the earliest possible moment.

These conditions were ratified by congress, and about half the Pennsylvania troops were given their discharge. Their success led a New Jersey brigade stationed at Pompton to revolt. Washington, who had felt sympathy for the brave men in the former instance, had none for those in the latter, who were without so great cause for complaint. As a soldier, he saw that it would not do to trifle. General Robert Howe with five hundred regulars was sent to the camp, and picking out twelve of the mutineers, he forced them to hang two of the ring-leaders.

This severe but necessary course ended all revolt. That which had taken place was not without its good effect. Congress was so thoroughly aroused by the occurrence that it lost no time in taking steps for the better support of the army. An agent was sent to France to obtain a further loan of money. Robert Morris was made secretary of finance, and the Bank of North America was organized, Morris and his friends pledging their private fortunes to maintain the credit of the government.

Benedict Arnold, having been made a brigadier-general in the British army, was given command of a fleet and land force of sixteen hundred men, and in December, 1780, started for the coast of Virginia, which he reached in January.

You can understand why the traitor was no longer the fine soldier and leader that he had been when fighting on the side of independence. He knew at that time that if

captured by the British, he would receive the treatment due all prisoners of war; but he might well dread falling into the hands of his outraged countrymen. This horror of becoming a prisoner hampered every enterprise in which he engaged.

Landing at Westover, on the James, Arnold marched at the head of nine hundred men to Richmond. A detachment under Lieutenant-colonel Simcoe was sent to Westham. A vast amount of public and private property was destroyed at both places. Baron Steuben hastily called out the militia, but Arnold was able to reach Portsmouth, where it was his purpose to establish a military post.

Learning of Arnold's invasion of Virginia, Washington sent twelve hundred New England troops, under charge of Lafayette, to the head of Chesapeake Bay, where they were to embark for the southern part of Virginia. The commander-in-chief proposed to Rochambeau that, inasmuch as a storm had scattered the British fleet blockading the French at Newport, the whole French squadron should be sent to the Chesapeake to help Lafayette. As soon as it could be done, three of the ships were dispatched to Portsmouth, but Arnold was found so strongly posted that they did not disturb him. When finally the fleet started, it was attacked by Arbuthnot off the capes of Virginia, and after a sharp fight, compelled to put back to Newport.

Clinton now sent two thousand more troops under General Phillips to Virginia. They continued the ferocious work begun by Arnold, ravaging right and left, and spreading terror on both sides of the James. Phillips died in May, and for a week Arnold had full sway, when Cornwallis arrived and displaced him.

Returning to New York, Arnold was sent by Clinton on another marauding expedition to New London, Connecticut. There was hope of gaining great plunder in that place, for many of the American privateers took their prizes into that port.

On the 6th of September, Arnold landed at the mouth of the Thames, and dividing his force into two columns, marched up both banks of the river. He had personal command of the column on the New London side. The only obstruction was Fort Trumbull, whose garrison was so small that after a single volley, they crossed and joined their friends at Fort Griswold on the Groton side. This gave a defensive force of about a hundred and twenty, under command of Lieutenant-colonel Ledyard. He fought bravely until the British force, which was six times as great as his own, swarmed over the ramparts. Ledyard handed his sword to Major Bromfield in token of his surrender, and was instantly run through, though it is not certain whether it was done by Bromfield or some other officer. But it is a fearful truth that over eighty of the garrison were killed and thirty wounded before the massacre stopped.

Nearly all the town was burned, including the custom-house, the court-house, the Episcopal church, the jail and the market. Sir Henry Clinton expressed his regret over the occurrence, and Arnold explained that it was an accident. Probably he meant that it was an accident that every building in the place was not reduced to ashes. The tradition is that from the belfry of a church Arnold watched the destruction of New London. A musket aimed by a woman at Arnold missed fire, or his career would have ended then and there. This, however, was the last blow he struck at his country.

AN INCIDENT IN THE DEFENSE OF "NINETY-SIX." (*See page 143.*)

Pen drawing by W. L. Jumel.

CHAPTER XIV.

1781. THE LAST CAMPAIGN.

GENERAL GREENE was astonished to learn that Cornwallis had retreated to Wilmington. He pursued him a short distance, but his own army was so reduced by desertions, and the men were so near starving that he had to give up the chase. It seemed to the American commander that either he must enter South Carolina, and thus relieve North Carolina by drawing Cornwallis after him, or must stay where he was, call in his outposts in the south and help to reconquer South Carolina and Georgia.

The force of each commander was small, being less than two thousand, and neither wanted to fight, so they maneuvered, advancing and retreating, and taking good care to keep clear for a time of each other. Cornwallis, suspecting that Greene meant to cross into South Carolina, sent several messengers to Lord Rawdon, who commanded the British posts in that province, urging him to be ready for danger. The messengers were captured and Rawdon learned nothing of his peril. Cornwallis had been at Wilmington only a short time, when he was told that Greene had begun his march southward.

The danger was so great that Cornwallis had no time to consult Clinton, his commander-in-chief in New York. Instead of going to the relief of Rawdon, Cornwallis marched northward into Virginia and joined the raiding force that was ravaging that part of the country. He made the start on the night of April 25th.

On that very day an important fight took place in South Carolina. Greene had entered the state, and, helped by Marion, had begun a series of scattering attacks, which were very annoying to the English officer. Lord Rawdon had established, by way of Camden and Ninety-six, a line of detached posts from Charleston to Augusta in Georgia. One of these, Fort Watson, was captured on the 23d by Marion and Colonel Lee, sent thither by Greene. The latter hoped to assail and capture Camden, but the country through which he marched was so hostile that he had to move slowly, and the news of his purpose traveled ahead of him. When, on April 20th, he came in sight of Camden, he found Rawdon too well prepared to be attacked. He moved to Hobkirk's Hill, a place strongly protected by swamps, trees, and underwood, and situated a short distance north of Camden, on the road to Waxhaw.

Greene had decided on a number of rapid movements, and had sent his artillery and baggage some distance away, that he might maneuver with greater ease. One of his drummer boys deserted to Rawdon and told him that the patriot commander was without his heavy guns and militia. Rawdon stealthily approached Greene's camp on the morning of the 25th and attacked it with great fury. Greene was surprised, but his men fought well, and the assailants were on the point of giving ground, when Colonel Gunby's

regiment of the Maryland brigade broke in panic. The British pressed them hard and it was impossible to rally the patriots. Greene, therefore, ordered a retreat. The pursuers were closing upon him, when a fierce charge by Colonel Washington and his cavalry checked them. The next day Greene took station at Rugely's Mills, twelve miles to the north of Camden. His loss was two hundred and seventy-one in killed and wounded, that of the enemy being nearly the same.

Lord Rawdon was unable, because of the weakness of his force, to follow up his victory, and Greene, with the help of the partisans, so annoyed him, that he could not stay in Camden. About the middle of May Rawdon withdrew to Monk's Corner, on the Cooper River, in the neighborhood of Charleston. Fort Watson having fallen, Fort Motte, Georgetown, and Fort Granby were speedily taken. These successes sent many wavering persons into the patriot ranks, while others who really believed in the Royalist cause, were repelled by the arrogance and tyranny of the British officers. On the 1st of June the only posts in South Carolina and Georgia still in the possession of the invaders were Ninety-six and Augusta. Five days later, Pickens and Lee captured Augusta, including three hundred prisoners.

Ninety-six was now so exposed that orders were sent to Colonel Cruger, its commandant, to abandon it. The orders, however, did not reach him, and he hastened to prepare for the attack that was sure to be made. The garrison numbered over five hundred and every one, including the colonel, was a Tory.

On May 22d, at the head of nearly a thousand men, Greene appeared before the fort. Under the direction of Kosciusko, two works were erected within seventy paces of the fortifications; but a sallying party destroyed them and the siege works were then thrown back to a distance of four hundred yards. The second parallel was finished by the 3d of June. One of the attacking works was built near the abatis, and raised to a height of forty feet, so as to command the interior of the town. Riflemen who were posted on top of this, picked off many of the garrison.

On the 8th of June Lee arrived with a re-enforcement from Augusta, and the siege works were extended and increased, but the place still held out. The defenders suffered greatly for water. A small stream ran by the town, but every one who went near it during the day was shot by the American marksmen. So watchful indeed were they, that the white men who stole out at night were nearly always seen and shot. The only thing that could be done was to send down naked negroes in the darkness. They being of the same color as the gloom itself, were able to bring back enough water to save the garrison from perishing.

As the month advanced, the Americans opened their third parallel and carried a mine and two trenches within a few feet of the ditch. Field pieces were mounted on batteries less than a hundred and fifty yards from the fort, and the garrison were forced to consider the question of surrender. They could not hold out much longer.

On the 11th of June, however, Greene was startled by the tidings that Rawdon, who had just received re-enforcements from England, was on his way to the relief of Ninety-six, with two thousand men. The American commander sent orders to Sumter to retard the advance by every means in his power. Rawdon, however, evaded the partisan, and

Greene, feeling that the place must be taken at once or not at all, made the attempt on the 18th to carry it by storm. The resistance was so vigorous, that he saw its capture would involve a greater sacrifice of life than it was worth. He, therefore, ordered a retreat.

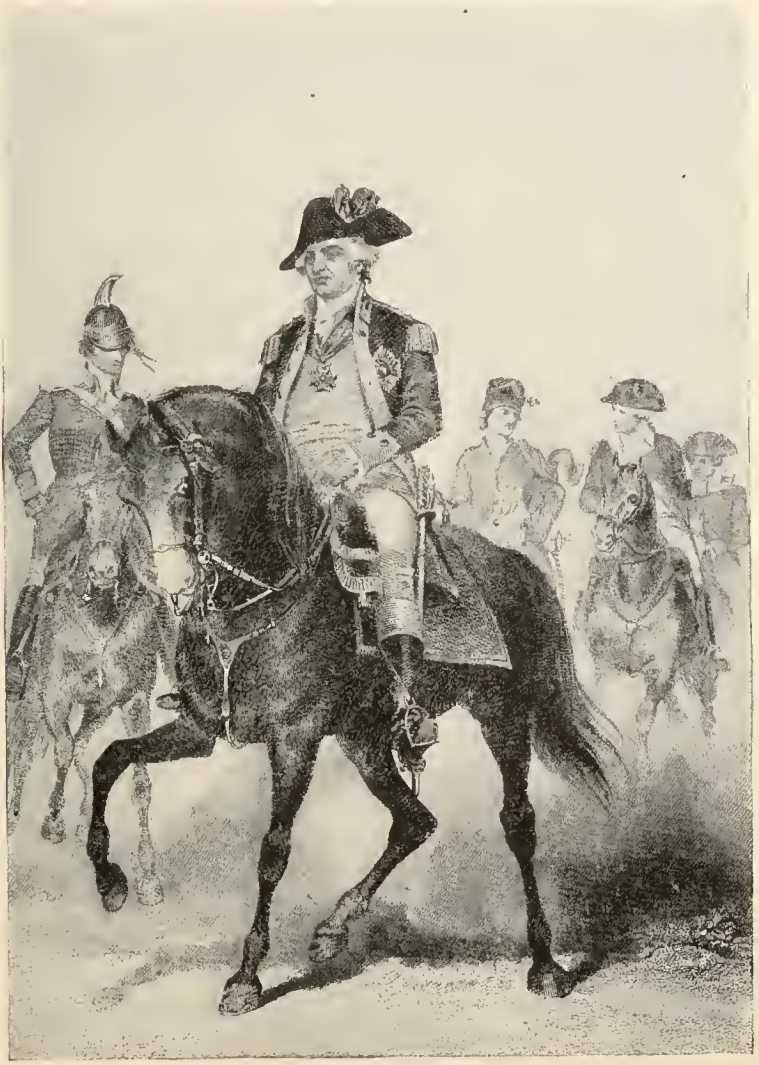
Lord Rawdon arrived on the 21st, and found that the garrison had lost eighty-five of their number in killed and wounded, while the loss of the Americans was about one hundred and fifty. Rawdon chased the patriots to the river Ennoree, and then, seeing

WASHINGTON'S HOUSE, MOUNT VERNON.

no chance of overtaking them, went back to Ninety-six. It was clear that the post could not be held, and he therefore ordered the garrison to leave it. Rawdon marched to the Congaree, leaving more than half his force under Cruger to escort the Tories to Charleston. They had good cause to dread the vengeance of their countrymen. Greene pursued them until all were on the south side of the Santee. Then the Americans withdrew to the higher ground.

Rawdon was so broken in health that he secured a leave of absence and started for England. He was captured by a French cruiser, taken back to America, and was present at the final catastrophe in Virginia in the following October.

About this time took place an incident which incensed the people north and south to the highest degree. Colonel Isaac Hayne was one of those taken prisoner at the capture of Charleston and released on parole. At that time, all his family were so seriously ill with the small-pox, that, rather than be parted from them, he declared his allegi-



MAJOR-GENERAL BARON STEUBEN.

ance to the king. At the time of signing, he objected to the clause requiring him to bear arms, if called upon, and was assured by the commandant of the garrison and the intendant of the British police that this would never be required of him. They said that when the regular troops could not defend the country without the aid of the inhabitants they would leave. Hayne, however, was called upon several times to take up arms against his countrymen and was threatened with close confinement if he refused.

The British being driven away, he believed himself freed from his pledge and took command of a regiment of South Carolina troops. He was captured, and, without any regular trial, hanged on a gallows outside Charleston on the morning of August 4, 1781.

But for the fact that peace was so near at hand, a war of extermination would have raged through the south as a result of this execution. It took all of Greene's firmness to prevent his men from hanging the Tories that fell into their power. How true it is that the most cruel of all wars is a civil war!

After the departure of Rawdon, the command fell to Lieutenant-colonel Stuart. He moved his forces to the Congaree and encamped near its confluence with the Wateree. Greene threatened him there, with less than fifteen miles separating the two armies; but that brief space was crossed by two rivers, which could not be readily passed without a circuit of seventy miles. Greene made the detour and Stuart fell back to Eutaw Springs. Having received some expected re-enforcements, so that each army numbered about two thousand men, Greene attacked the enemy on the morning of September 8th. The battle lasted four hours and was fought with great determination by both sides. The British outposts were driven in on the main body, but the militia were forced to give way after a time, and their comrades used the bayonet. A part of the English line recoiled in turn, but the veterans held their ground, and the struggle was desperate and bloody.

By charging them in the rear, Lee turned the left flank of the British, seized their artillery, and started in pursuit. Better fortune attended the British on the right. Major Sheridan had posted himself and detachment in a large three-storied brick house in the rear of the army, and another detachment occupied an adjoining garden where there was much dense shrubbery and some palisades. These positions were assailed by the Americans with heroic endeavor, but in vain. Artillery was brought to bear on the house, but the walls proved too strong and were little injured. The fire on the cannoneers was so hot that when they withdrew they were not able to take the guns with them.

Colonel Washington tried to turn the right flank of the English, but his horse was shot under him, and he was wounded and taken prisoner. Stuart was able to rally his flying troops, mainly because the Americans had discovered the camps supplied with rum and provisions, and were more interested in them than they were in pursuing the enemy. Greene retreated.

The severity of the battle is proven by the losses. That of the British in killed, wounded and prisoners, was seven hundred; that of the Americans was almost as great. Each side claimed the victory, but the fact was that the Americans retreated several miles, and the British held the ground. But, after all, the greater advantage came to Greene. Stuart began falling back the next day, and Greene followed him to within a few miles of Charleston. There was some skirmishing, but no more battles were fought in that section during the Revolution. Governor Rutledge convened the South Carolina legislature within thirty-five miles of Charleston. Substantially the war for them was over. Sir Henry Clinton's scheme of conquering the states in detail had not been successful, and now, with some slight exceptions, the only soldiers that he had in the south were at Charleston, Savannah and Wilmington.

Clinton, the British commander-in-chief, and Lord Cornwallis, his chief lieutenant, were not on good terms. They differed as to the manner in which the war should be carried on, and, though Cornwallis was too good a soldier to disobey his superior, he followed his orders so sullenly and reluctantly that he could have done little worse had he ignored them entirely.

Clinton was alarmed because he could not learn what Washington meant to do. It seemed to him that his most likely course would be an attack on New York. It was this fear which caused him to notify Cornwallis that additional troops would be needed to prepare for such siege or attack.

In May, at Wethersfield, Conn., Washington and Rochambeau held a long consultation over the plan of capturing New York, with the aid of the French fleet at Newport, and that of Count de Grasse from the West Indies, the latter having been ordered to spend the summer on the American coast. No clear decision was reached, though Clinton in New York was quite sure that a campaign against him had been decided upon.

Lafayette at this time was facing Cornwallis in Virginia. His force was so small that he was in great peril, and he wrote to Washington that he was not strong enough even to get beaten. Cornwallis was so confident of capturing him as to boast that the "boy" could not get away. It was not long before this expression was turned against the vaunting commander. Having no chance of doing any thing else with his one thousand Continentals, two thousand militia and sixty dragoons, Lafayette took up a position at Richmond and ordered the military stores removed to a place of greater safety.

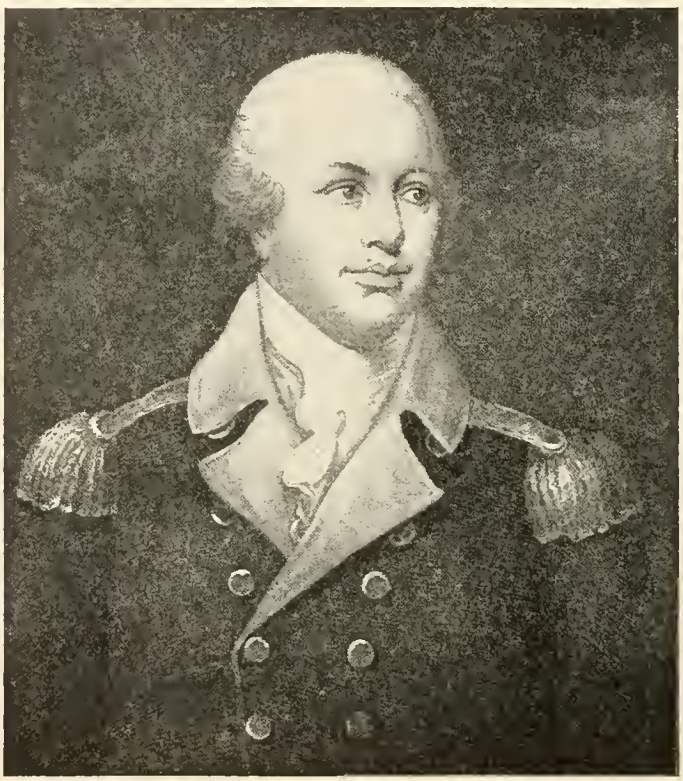
Receiving a re-enforcement that increased his troops to four thousand, Cornwallis left Petersburg on the 24th of May for Richmond. Before his arrival, Lafayette had left the place, in order to form a junction with Wayne, who was approaching with eight hundred men. Cornwallis pursued Lafayette into the upper part of Hanover County, when, seeing he could not catch him, he turned back, destroying a great deal of public and private property. The "boy" was not yet captured.

Needing more cavalry, Cornwallis seized horses from the stables of private citizens, and mounted many of his infantry. Thus prepared for rapid marching, he decided to make a descent on Charlotteville, whence the Virginia legislature had removed from Richmond.

Colonel Tarleton with a small force of cavalry and mounted infantry, moved with great swiftness toward Charlotteville, and assuredly would have captured the entire legislative body, had not Mr. Janiette, suspecting his purpose, mounted a fleet horse, and by a shorter route, reached the town in advance. No assembly ever adjourned more quickly than did that of Virginia. Even so, seven members were taken, but the majority, including Thomas Jefferson, the governor, managed to escape by a hair's breadth, as may be said, and re-assembled at Staunton, beyond the Blue Ridge. Tarleton destroyed the public stores at Charlotteville, and then went down the Rivanna to co-operate with Colonel Simcoe in surprising Baron Steuben in his position at the junction of the Rivanna and Fluvanna rivers. Steuben did not learn of his danger until he saw the detachment coming. Believing it to be the van of the British army, he fled in great

haste during the night, leaving behind him a part of his stores. Lafayette joined his forces with those of General Wayne, at Raccoon Ford, on the 7th of June, and immediately repassed the Rappahannock, and advanced against the British.

Hoping to secure a large quantity of military stores at Albemarle Court House, Cornwallis marched thither, but Lafayette adroitly threw himself between him and the place, and the British commander dared not attack him. By a retreat of fifty miles, Cornwallis entered Richmond on the 17th of June, stayed there three days, and then pressed on to Williamsburg, where the main body of his army arrived on the 25th. Lafay-



MAJOR-GENERAL NATHANAEL GREENE.

Painting by Trumbull.

ette, strengthened by Steuben's detachment, cautiously followed at a distance of twenty miles, but did not feel strong enough to risk a battle.

It was at this juncture that Cornwallis received orders from Sir Henry Clinton in New York to send thither a number of re-enforcements to aid against the expected attack by Washington. Feeling himself unable, with his weakened army, to hold Williamsburg, Cornwallis notified Sir Henry that he intended to pass the James, and retire to Portsmouth. The baggage and a part of the troops crossed the river on the 5th and 6th of July, and the rest were assailed on the northern shore by Lafayette, who had hastily crossed the Chickahominy. Supposing he had only the rear guard to deal with, Lafayette ordered General Wayne to attack. Though this daring officer had only eight hun-

dred men, he hurled them against the main body of the British army, drawn up in order of battle, and every man fought like a hero. When, however, Lafayette saw the blunder, he recalled the troops, and a hasty retreat followed. The sun had set, and the Americans, taking position behind a morass, were not molested, Cornwallis fearing an ambuscade. He withdrew to Portsmouth, where the troops sent for by Clinton were embarked, but, before they sailed, the order was countermanded. Clinton would not consent to the abandonment of the Chesapeake, and recommended the establishment of a defensive post for the reception of ships-of-the-line, either at Yorktown on the river

VIEW OF YORKTOWN.
From an old print.

York, or at Point Comfort in Hampton Roads. After making a number of surveys, Cornwallis decided on fortifying Yorktown and Gloucester. There it seemed that ships-of-the-line could be received in safety. Accordingly, Portsmouth was evacuated, and, by the 22d of August, the British army in Virginia was concentrated in the positions mentioned, upon opposite banks of York River.

Meanwhile, as you have been informed, Washington was not idle. As the result of his conference with Rochambeau, that officer, early in June, set his four thousand soldiers in motion. The weather was very warm, but the four divisions of his army marched through Connecticut in splendid order, many of the officers leading on foot. By the 6th of July, the

allied armies were encamped in a line from Dobbs Ferry on the Hudson to the Bronx River.

The movements of Washington greatly alarmed Clinton, who was sure that an attack was to be made on him. The former had no such intention, though he wished his enemy to think he had. Demonstrations took place against the British posts on the upper end of Manhattan Island, and, on the 21st of July, five thousand men marched across Harlem Creek to Throgg's Neck. This movement was under the direction of Washington and Rochambeau, and Clinton could not but feel that it was of the highest importance.

The Americans were as busy as beavers. Boats and stores were gathered, and troops were massed in New Jersey, opposite the north shore of Staten Island. Clinton was equally busy in strengthening his defenses, and it was a great relief to him, when in August, three thousand Hessians reached him from Bremen. All this, you will observe, kept his attention upon New York and away from Virginia, which was the real objective point of the patriot commander-in-chief.

Washington had ordered Lafayette to hold Cornwallis where he was, and to guard against his escape into North Carolina. Robert Morris, the financial agent of the government, was written to for information as to what stores could be procured for the use of the army, and the number of vessels at command for transportation down the Delaware and Chesapeake bays. In a few days, official notice reached Washington that DeGrasse would be at the mouth of the Chesapeake by the end of August. On the morning of the 19th, the troops were ordered under arms, facing New York. An advance guard had been sent forward to clear the road. Then when the order to march was given, the whole army moved toward King's Ferry on the North River. They started at a brisk pace, not for New York, but for Virginia!

On the 22d the Hudson was crossed and the troops encamped at Haverstraw. The allies moved also on the 19th, advancing to King's Ferry by way of North Castle. They marched directly to Trenton. To confuse Clinton, Washington's column headed toward Springfield, dragging boats on wheels, as though they meant to go to Staten Island. General Heath with three thousand men was left behind at Peekskill.

And so it was not till the 2d of September that Sir Henry Clinton awoke to the amazing fact that no siege of New York was intended. He had been outwitted by his opponent. Excepting the guard at Peekskill, the patriot army was gone.

Where was it?

Tramping through the streets of Philadelphia, to the booming of cannon, the ringing of bells and the shouts of the joyous people. Directly behind came the French legions with their steady lines and multitudinous tread. The armed hosts were passing southward, and every one knew that they were on the eve of great events. The feeling was abroad that news would soon come, which, like the volley fired at Lexington, would be heard around the world.

It was too late for Clinton to stop or to turn aside the sweep of the patriot army. The raid into Connecticut, which has been described elsewhere, was a weak attempt to recall the American commander-in-chief, and it failed. The game in front of Washing-

ton, even though still at a great distance, was too valuable for him to allow any thing to turn him from his purpose.

Reaching the head of Elk River, Washington left his army for awhile and pushed on to Baltimore. Arriving there on the 8th, he left the next day, accompanied only by Colonel Humphreys, to pay a brief visit to Mount Vernon, which he had not seen for more than six years.

The French and American armies were separated for a short time, the former staying a little longer in Philadelphia. When the head of the Elk was reached transportation was found to be insufficient for the troops, ordnance and stores, and it was arranged that a part of the force should proceed by land. Washington reached Lafayette's head-quarters, near Williamsburg, on the 14th of September, and on the 25th the armies were reunited.

Count DeGrasse, with three thousand troops, had arrived in Chesapeake Bay, as he promised, in the latter part of August. The French admiral learned from Lafayette the position of affairs, and the plan of operations against the British army. DeGrasse sent four ships-of-the-line and some frigates to block the entrance to York River and to take the re-enforcement of troops to Lafayette's camp. The rest of the fleet was stationed at the entrance to the bay.

Admiral Rodney, the British admiral in the West Indies, learning that DeGrasse had sailed northward, detached Admiral Hood, with fourteen ships-of-the-line, in pursuit. He reached the Virginia capes ahead of the French, and, seeing nothing of their ships, kept on to Sandy Hook. About the same time, DeBarras sailed with the French fleet from Newport to join his countrymen in Chesapeake Bay. On the 31st of August, Admiral Graves, with nineteen ships-of-the-line, started in pursuit of him. Like Hood, he missed the enemy, but arriving at the north of the Chesapeake on the 5th of September, ahead of Barras, he discovered DeGrasse's fleet, consisting of twenty-four vessels, lying at anchor in Hampton Roads.

DeGrasse stood out to sea and a fight was brought on, lasting from four in the afternoon till sunset. The French had the best of the naval battle, destroying one of the British ships, but the result was not decisive. DeGrasse remained at sea four or five days, but the fight was not renewed and on the 11th, he was back again in Chesapeake Bay, where he found DeBarras had arrived from Newport, with fourteen transports, laden with heavy artillery and other appliances for carrying on a siege. Admiral Graves came near enough to gain one good look at the fleet, and then turned about and sailed for New York.

The French admiral's ship, the *Ville de Paris*, was the largest vessel then afloat. It carried one hundred and six guns, had been built at great cost with scientific exactness, and had been presented by the citizens of Paris to Louis XVI. On the 19th of September, Washington, accompanied by Rochambeau, visited this ship and held a conference with DeGrasse on the campaign.

Washington was disappointed to learn from the admiral that the instructions of his government would not allow him to stay on the American coast beyond the 1st of November. He said too that he had learned of the arrival of Admiral Digby (British) at New York with a re-enforcement of six ships-of-the-line, so that he was quite certain of

being soon attacked by a force almost as strong as his own. Should such an attack be made, DeGrasse felt that he would be at great disadvantage, unless he put to sea. He was very anxious, therefore, to depart at once. This would have injured and most likely defeated Washington's plans. It required all his powers of persuasion to induce DeGrasse to stay, but he not only succeeded in doing so, but roused the enthusiasm of the Frenchman to unite with him in pushing Cornwallis to the wall.

You will remember that the latter had taken possession of Yorktown on the southern bank of York River, and of Gloucester Point, directly opposite, on the northern bank. Now, if you will bear in mind that the James River flows eight miles to the south of Yorktown, and that the York and James both empty into Chesapeake Bay, you will see that by occupying this narrow peninsula, Cornwallis had placed himself in a trap.

He began to fortify both Yorktown and Gloucester Point. He did not like the position, but felt that he was carrying out the orders of his superior, Sir Henry Clinton, who would be responsible for whatever disaster might follow. Cornwallis, however, did not dream that it could be of such an overwhelming character as it turned out to be. On the 16th of September he wrote to Clinton: "This place is in no state of defense. If you can not relieve me very soon, you must expect to hear the worst."

Across the York at Gloucester Point was Colonel Tarleton with six or seven hundred men, while Cornwallis with his main army was encamped near Yorktown, under the protection of redoubts and field-works. He hoped to have all his fortifications finished by the 1st of October, and soon after, help from Clinton might be expected. He had only seven thousand troops with which to meet the superior army that was closing its lines about him. His sole hope lay in extending his defensive works so as to render success by an assault impossible.

Toward the end of September, he had erected at Yorktown seven redoubts and six batteries, connected by intrenchments on the land side. Another line of batteries extended along the river, and on each flank of the town were the natural defenses of the deep ravines and creeks. The heads of these, in front, were about half a mile apart. Along their course, the English general had planted redoubts, field-works, and felled trees with their branches projecting outward. The channel of the river was blocked by sunken vessels; ships of war were stationed under protection of the guns of the forts, and Gloucester Point was rendered as strong as possible.

Such was the situation, when, on the 25th of September, the French and American troops encamped near Williamsburg. That night, Washington and his staff bivouacked on the ground in the open air, the commander-in-chief sleeping under a mulberry tree, a root of which served for a pillow. The next day the allied armies took their positions, the Americans, who formed the right wing, occupying the east side of Beaver Dam Creek, and the French, the left, on the west side.

On the evening of this day, Cornwallis received a letter from Sir Henry Clinton, informing him of the arrival of Admiral Digby, who, with a fleet of twenty-three ships-of-the-line and more than five thousand troops would sail to his help about the 5th of October. They would announce themselves by heavy firing when they reached the entrance to Chesapeake Bay. If all was well with Cornwallis at Yorktown, he was to

PLAN OF THE SIEGE OF YORKTOWN.

reply with three separate columns of smoke. If he still held Gloucester Point, he was to signal the fact by four columns of vapor. Cornwallis wrote back that he hoped to be in possession of both places when the promised help should reach him. He thought he could signal best with cannon, but promised to try the smoke on the Gloucester side.

At night Cornwallis abandoned his outworks and drew his troops within the town. The next day the abandoned works were seized by detachments of American light infantry and French troops, and proved of great help in sheltering the men employed in throwing up breastworks. On the night of the 28th the allies encamped within two miles of Yorktown, and General de Choisy crossed the river with a detachment, to watch the enemy at Gloucester Point.

In a short time the besieging line described a semicircle, with each end resting on the river, so the investment by land was complete, while Count de Grasse kept watch and ward by sea. On the 3d of October de Choisy cut off all communication between Gloucester and the country.

The first parallel before Yorktown was begun by General Lincoln on the evening of October 6th. It extended nearly two miles and was within six hundred yards of the British lines. Cornwallis knew nothing of what was going on until the next day, when he opened fire, but the Americans were too well screened to suffer. The parallel was finished within three days, and several of the batteries were ready to open on the town. Washington himself applied the match to the first gun. A vigorous fire of cannon and mortars was maintained and much damage inflicted. The French joined in the cannonade, which scarcely ceased for four days and nights. Governor Nelson being asked to direct the bombardment of the town, pointed out a house which he believed was the head-quarters of Cornwallis. It was his own home!

Many of the English guns were dismounted or silenced, and the fortifications suffered. Through the day, the sky was penciled by the inky lines of the shells crossing each others' paths, and at night the crimson curves were like the tracks of innumerable meteors. The boom of the cannon and the crash of the exploding shells helped to make the scene one of the most impressive that can be imagined. The French batteries to the northwest of the town threw red-hot shot, and set fire one night to a large English ship and three transports.

The English cavalry were so distressed for the want of forage that many of the horses were killed and sent floating down the river. An epidemic broke out in the town and hundreds became helpless. Two thousand out of the seven thousand of Cornwallis were in hospital; his situation was desperate, but he did all that could be done, and his men showed great fortitude and bravery.

Baron Steuben's division began the second parallel on the night of October 11th. It was three hundred yards from the works of the enemy, who made new embrasures, and for several days kept up a hot fire on the besiegers. The Americans were annoyed also by the flanking fire from two redoubts that were supposed to command the communication between Yorktown and Gloucester.

At eight o'clock in the evening of the 14th, a number of rockets shooting high in air gave the signal for the simultaneous storming of these batteries by the French and

Americans. The latter dashed up to the bastion they were to attack, pushed the abatis aside and scrambled over the obstructions. Leaping upon the parapet, they carried the works at the point of the bayonet. The French were equally successful with the other redoubt, though the fighting there resulted in much slaughter.

Washington, Knox and Lincoln, with their staffs, watched, from the grand battery, the struggle at the two redoubts. Standing near an embrasure, one of his aids reminded the commander-in-chief that he was exposed to much danger. "If you think so," quietly replied Washington, "you are at liberty to step back." A few minutes later, a rifle ball passed close to him. General Knox begged him to move aside, but Washington would not do so, until the works were taken. Then he drew a long sigh of relief, and remarking "The work is done, and well done," called for his horse and rode away.

As the days passed the besiegers grew stronger and the besieged weaker. The longing eyes of Cornwallis saw no friendly sail on the widening waters of the Atlantic, and gradually the truth was forced upon him that all hope was gone. Just before dawn, on the 16th, three hundred and fifty men attacked two of the besieging batteries, spiked eleven of the guns and killed and wounded a hundred of the French. The work was so hastily done, however, that the cannon were easily repaired, and by night the batteries of the second parallel were almost ready.

By this time, according to Cornwallis's dispatches, the guns were dismounted along his entire front, and his shells were expended. He resolved, before surrendering, to attempt to escape by the only means remaining. That was, to leave behind him his sick, baggage, and other incumbrances, cross the river at night to Gloucester, attack the French stationed there, and overcoming them, to push northward through Pennsylvania and New Jersey, in the hope of joining Clinton in New York.

A part of his army was taken across, but a storm came up and drove the boats down stream. They could not be recovered until after daylight, when the troops that had been taken over were brought back. All that now remained to Cornwallis was to surrender, and he opened negotiations. The terms were completed and signed on the 18th.

At two o'clock in the afternoon, on the 19th of October, 1781, the British troops marched out of Yorktown, with drums beating, muskets shouldered and colors cased. The Americans were drawn up on the right of the road, and the French on the left, their lines extending more than a mile. Washington had ordered all mere spectators to keep away, and he suppressed every sign of public exultation.

General O'Hara rode at the head of the troops. As he came opposite Washington, he lifted his hat and apologized for the absence of Lord Cornwallis, because of illness.

General Washington in reply said that to General Lincoln had been assigned the duty of receiving the submission of the garrison. You will remember that this officer had been obliged to surrender Charleston to Clinton the previous year. He conducted the troops into an open field, where, when the order, "Ground arms," was given, many of the men threw down their muskets with such violence that they were broken. Who can blame them?

The ceremony being over, the prisoners were conducted back to Yorktown, there to stay under guard until taken elsewhere.

CHAPTER XV.

1781–82. THE EMBERS OF WAR.

CORNWALLIS surrendered seven thousand two hundred and forty-seven English and Hessian soldiers, and eight hundred and forty sailors. Seventy-five brass and thirty-one iron guns were also taken, including the accouterments of the army. It was the death-blow to the conquest of America.

On the day of the surrender, Clinton set sail from New York to the relief of Yorktown. He arrived off the Chesapeake on the 24th, but his anxious eyes saw nothing of the columns of smoke by which Cornwallis was to notify him that all was well. Instead, he learned to his dismay that every British soldier in Virginia was a prisoner of war. For some time he refused to credit the news, but, when he could doubt no longer, he went back to New York.

A courier, mounted on a swift horse, started for Philadelphia with the glorious tidings. On the evening of the 23d he rode into the city. You can not imagine the excitement that night when the watchmen changed their usual cry of "Past two o'clock and all is well," to "Past two o'clock and Cornwallis is taken!" Windows were thrown up, heads thrust out, and the citizens, hardly waiting to clothe themselves fully, ran out to make sure they had heard aright. The bells were set ringing, men hurrahed and shouted, and the whole population was on the streets. Early the next morning, congress marched in solemn procession to the Dutch Lutheran church, where they gave thanks to God for the deliverance of the nation. The aged doorkeeper of congress actually dropped dead with joy.

Probably the only leading man who restrained himself during this rejoicing was General Washington. No one appreciated more than he the splendor of the triumph, but he saw with his clear vision that the end had not yet come. It was too early to disband the army. There was peril in this excess of delight.

Count de Grasse now prepared to leave with his fleet. Washington urged him to aid in taking Charleston, but his orders would not permit him to remain. His fleet, however, covered the American troops and ordnance while they embarked for the head of the Elk, whither some of the other brigades went by land, that they might be quartered for the winter in New Jersey and on the Hudson, so as to be ready for operations against New York or elsewhere in the spring.

Another part of the army marched to join Greene in South Carolina. The French troops under Rochambeau stayed in Virginia, so as to be ready for operations, either in the south or north. The forces with De Grasse, under St. Simon, sailed for the West Indies in November. The British prisoners were marched to Winchester in Virginia,

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WASHINGTON FIRING THE FIRST GUN AT THE SIEGE OF YORKTOWN.

Drawn by Francis Christy.

and Frederickstown in Maryland, while Cornwallis and his chief officers sailed for New York on parole. Some weeks later Lafayette returned to Europe.

Directly after the capitulation, Washington, in general orders, congratulated the allied armies on their victory, gave high praise to the officers and troops, French and American, acknowledged the great services rendered by De Grasse and his fleet, appointed a thanksgiving service, and granted a pardon to all those of the army that were under arrest. He afterward made a brief visit to Mount Vernon and then went to Philadelphia, where he arrived on the 27th of November. You may be sure that congress did not forget to do him and his valiant comrades full honor.

During the siege of Yorktown, no military movements of importance took place elsewhere. The Tories of North Carolina, under McNeil and McDougall, captured Hillsborough and took some prisoners. In a subsequent fight with the patriots, McNeil and a number of his men were killed, and McDougall narrowly missed capture. Major Ross, of the British army, led a mongrel force of five hundred regulars, Tories and Indians into the Mohawk country. He was driven back, and was overtaken later at Canada Creek, by Colonel Willet, and again defeated. A gratifying incident of this defeat was the death of the inhuman Tory, Walter N. Butler, who caused the massacre in Cherry Valley. He begged for quarter, but being recognized, he who had refused mercy to women and children, met a similar refusal himself.

The news of the surrender of Cornwallis reached London about noon on the 25th of November. When it was told Lord North, the prime minister, he flung his arms aloft and in great excitement, exclaimed, "O God! it is all over!" King George, although much disturbed, hid his emotions, and said that the surrender should not deter him in the least from pressing the conquest of the colonies.

You must understand that, though Great Britain waged such a cruel war against the United States, there were many Englishmen, both in parliament and outside, who were our friends from the first. They were tired of the long struggle, and rejoiced that now the end had come, or, at least, was close at hand.

I suppose you know that in England when some important national movement is on foot, those opposing it can cause its defeat only by outvoting in parliament the supporters of the ministry. Thus, England would continue the war in America, so long as the ministry retained a majority of the votes in parliament. Whenever the friends of American independence could muster a majority, and declare their lack of confidence in the government, the whole ministry would resign and the king would form a new one from the party in favor of peace. It was just such failure of support that caused the resignation of Gladstone and his associates in 1885.

The British parliament met two days after receiving the news of the surrender of Yorktown. Little else was in the thoughts of the members. The king announced his purpose of continuing the war, and asked for the support of parliament in measures for the conquest of America. Lord Shelburne, in the House of Lords, moved an amendment to the address, censured the government and sharply criticised the whole policy of the ministry. He found plenty of supporters, but the upper house is a hard body to move, and about three-fourths of the members voted against his motion.

To show you what warm friends we had at that day in the House of Lords, I will quote from the speech of Edmund Burke, who, referring to the talk of the rights of England, said:

"Are we yet to be told of the rights for which we went to war? O excellent rights! O valuable rights! Valuable you should be, for we have paid dear at parting with you! O valuable rights, that have cost England thirteen provinces, four islands, a hundred thousand men and more than seventy millions of money! O wonderful rights, that have lost to Great Britain her empire on the ocean — her boasted, grand and substantial superiority, which made the world bend before her! O inestimable rights, that have taken from us our rank among nations, our importance abroad, and our happiness at home; that have taken from us our trade, our manufactures, and our commerce; that have reduced us from the most flourishing empire in the world to one of the most compact, unenviable powers on the face of the globe! O wonderful rights, that are likely to take from us all that yet remains! We had a *right* to tax America, says the noble lord, and, as we had a right, we must do it. . . . O miserable and infatuated men! miserable and undone country! not to know that right signifies nothing without might; that the right without the power of enforcing it is nugatory and idle in the copyhold of rival states, or of immense bodies. 'Oh,' says a silly man, full of his prerogative of dominion over a few beasts of the field, 'there is excellent wool on the back of a wolf, and therefore he must be sheared.' What! shear a wolf? 'Yes.' But will he comply? Have you considered the trouble? How will you get this wool? 'Oh, I have considered nothing, and I will consider nothing but my right: a wolf is an animal that has wool; all animals that have wool are to be shorn; and therefore I will shear the wolf.'"

Our friends in England were increasing in numbers and boldness, but it was a long time before they could carry the day. We leave them to fight their battles in parliament, while we look at the progress of events in our own country.

The winter that followed the surrender of Cornwallis was spent by Washington in Philadelphia, where he held many earnest interviews with the leading members of congress. He impressed them with the need of being prepared for the worst. They certainly would be able to secure better terms if they showed Great Britain they were ready to go on with the struggle. Sir Henry Clinton was in New York, chagrined and impatient for new instructions from home; the troops in the south were in high spirits over their great success, and almost everywhere reigned a feeling of hope and joy.

Monmouth County, New Jersey, had not only the staunchest patriots but some of the most ferocious Tories in the whole Union. Like the Carolinas, neighbors were arrayed against each other and the warfare was of the bitterest kind. At the old town of Dover on Toms River, the patriots built a block-house which was the rallying point for that neighborhood. It was of logs seven feet high, set perpendicularly in the ground and pointed at the top. In shape, it was nearly square, and each side was pierced with openings through which firelocks could be aimed. On one side was a small building for barracks, and on the other another small structure, mostly underground, for a powder magazine. On each of the four corners of the structure was a small cannon on a pivot. The only way of entering and leaving the fort was by a scaling ladder, which had to be called into use quite often.

The commander of this little post was Captain Joshua Huddy, one of the most daring partisans of the Revolution, who had fought for independence almost from the firing of the first gun at Lexington. You will find many descendants of the Huddys in that part of New Jersey to-day, and in Monmouth County there are numerous traditions, that seem almost incredible, of the deeds of that patriot. His house was once surrounded by his foes, who called on him to surrender. Huddy was the only man in the building, but he had several muskets. These were loaded by the women, and he kept up such a hot fire from different points that it looked as if there were several defenders within. This went on for two hours, when the house was fired and he was overpowered and carried away.

THE HOUSE WHERE CORNWALLIS SURRENDERED.
From an old print.

Wrenching himself loose, and leaping into the waters of the bay he shouted, "*I am Huddy!*" and swam for the thicket on the other shore, where no one dared to follow him. In the course of a few months, it came about that Captain Huddy was discussed in the councils of the three leading nations of the world.

During the blustery days of March, rumors reached Toms River that an attempt was to be made to capture the post. Captain Huddy's force at that time consisted of two non-commissioned officers and twenty-three men, every one of whom answered "Here!" when the captain called the roll.

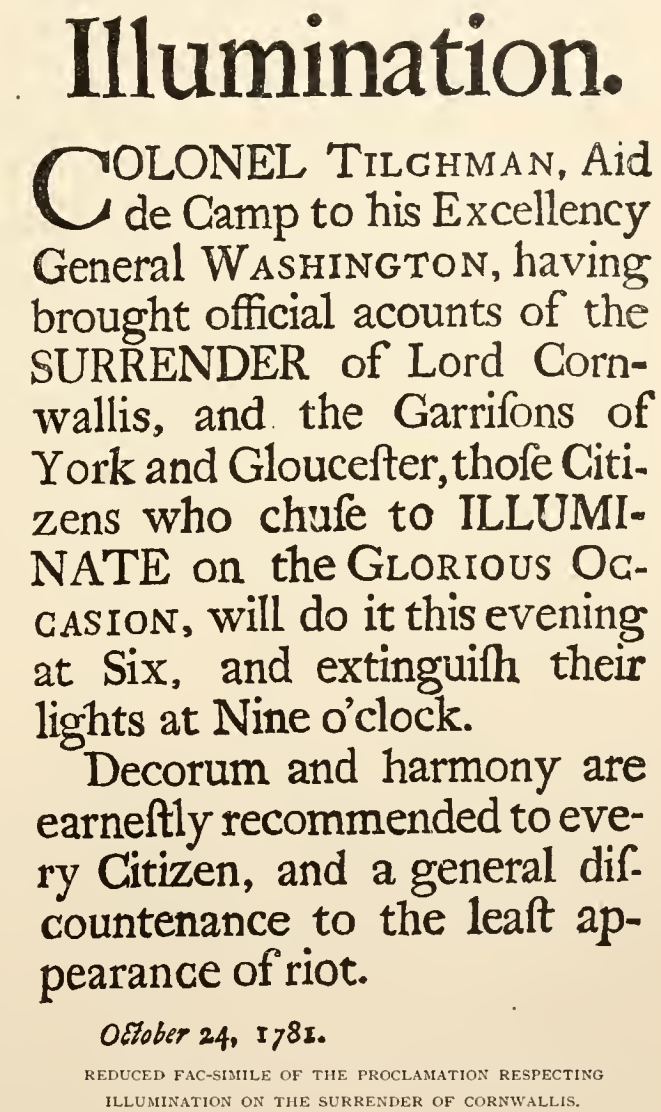
The Board of Associated Loyalists in the city of New York was presided over by William Franklin, the last royal governor of New Jersey. He did all he could to hurt the

patriot cause, and in March, 1782, the directors of this board planned an expedition to capture the block-house at Toms River and to destroy the village. There were salt works in the neighborhood, and the chief duty of Captain Huddy was to protect them against the enemy.

On Wednesday morning March 20, 1782, a party of forty Tories and eighty seamen, all fully armed, left New York in whale-boats under the escort of an armed brigantine. The winds were contrary, and it was not until March 23, that they rounded Sandy Hook and passed down the coast.

Going through Cranberry Inlet (now closed) at midnight, they landed at Coates Point, on the north side of the mouth of Toms River. The night was cold and still, and on their march to the village they were joined by other Tories, so that a force many times stronger than the garrison, came in sight of the hamlet, just as it was growing light, Sunday, March 24.

Captain Huddy learned the evening before that his enemies were coming, and sent out a scouting force which missed them, as they took a different route from that anticipated. The invaders entered the village on the north side, where they were challenged and fired upon by a picket. The swivel guns were manned and a musket was shoved through each loophole in the block-house. When called upon to surrender, Huddy sent back a defiant answer, and a furious charge followed. The battle was of the most savage character. Huddy and his men used their bayonets and the long pikes with which they were provided, and for a time those who scaled the parapet were wounded and driven back. Men were killed on both sides, but the patriots could ill afford the loss. Their supply of powder ran low, and, before long, the sailors swarmed over the palisades and overwhelmed the defenders. Captain Huddy and sixteen men, four of them wounded,



Illumination.

COLONEL TILGHMAN, Aid de Camp to his Excellency General WASHINGTON, having brought official acounts of the SURRENDER of Lord Cornwallis, and the Garrifons of York and Glouceſter, thoſe Citizens who chuſe to ILLUMINATE on the GLORIOUS OCCASION, will do it this evening at Six, and extinguiſh their lights at Nine o'clock.

Decorum and harmony are earneſtly recommended to every Citizen, and a general diſcountenance to the leaſt appearance of riot.

October 24, 1781.

REDUCED FAC-SIMILE OF THE PROCLAMATION RESPECTING ILLUMINATION ON THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS.

were taken prisoners and the block-house burned to the ground. Besides this, the two mills, the salt works and store-house, representing the industry of the village, and all the dwelling-houses except two were laid in ashes. The guns were spiked and thrown into the river, and several large boats tied to the wharf were rowed down the stream to the bay and carried off as prizes.

It was the intention of the invaders to lay waste the country around Shark River and to destroy the salt works at Squan, but the condition of their wounded men, who had no medical attendance, forbade. They returned to New York, where Captain Huddy and his comrades were placed in the Old Sugar House Prison.

Now, you will observe that Captain Huddy was a prisoner of war and entitled to treatment as such, but Franklin and his Tory associates were far more cruel than the British. By their orders, Captain Huddy was placed in irons on board a sloop, and with two friends sent down to the armed ship *Britannia* which was stationed as the guard-ship off Sandy Hook. Captain Richard Lippincott, of Monmouth County, a Tory in the service of the king, was ordered to the guard-ship with secret instructions given by the board, and Huddy was placed in his custody.

At ten o'clock on the morning of April 12, 1782, Captain Huddy was taken from the ship by Captain Lippincott and sixteen Tories, with six sailors, and landed at Gravelly Point on the Navasink, about a mile beyond the old Highland light-house. A gallows was made from three rails, while a barrel turned on end and a rope were the remaining implements of execution. With this rope around his neck, Captain Huddy was allowed to dictate his will and sign it on the barrel head.

This will was written on a half sheet of foolscap, and bears this indorsement: "The will of Captain Joshua Huddy, made and executed the same day the refugees murdered him, April 12, 1782." The will itself is now in the city of Newark in the library of the New Jersey Historical Society.

When he had finished writing, a placard was pinned to the breast of Captain Huddy bearing these words: "We, the refugees, having with grief long beheld the cruel murders of our brethren, and finding nothing but such measures daily carrying into execution; we, therefore, determine not to suffer without taking vengeance for the numerous cruelties, and thus begin, having made use of Captain Huddy as the first object to present to your view, and further determine to hang man for man, as long as a refugee is left existing. Up goes Huddy for Philip White." The last words uttered by Huddy were, "I shall die innocent and in a good cause."

Captain Lippincott cursed his men because they were reluctant to hang so brave a man, and helped pull the rope himself. When he went back to New York, he reported to the Board of Loyalists that he had *exchanged* Captain Huddy for Philip White.

The body of the murdered officer hung on the gallows until four o'clock in the afternoon, when it was taken to the house of Captain James Green, in Freehold. The pastor of the Presbyterian church preached the funeral sermon from the front porch of the old Freehold hotel, and the body was buried with the honors of war. It is not known where the remains lie, but it is believed in the graveyard at the old Tennent church on the Monmouth battle ground.

This crime fired the patriots of Monmouth County. The indignation was so deep that a public meeting was called, and resolutions adopted, urging General Washington to retaliate. Affidavits of many citizens, and the label that was pinned to the breast of Huddy, were taken to Elizabethtown, shown to the commissioners of prisoners, General Knox and Gouveneur Morris, and then carried to the commander-in-chief, at Newburgh on the Hudson.

On April 29th, Washington called a council-of-war of twenty-five general and field-officers, at Major-General William Heath's head-quarters, and submitted to them all the papers in the case, requesting separate answers in writing as to whether retaliation was justifiable and expedient.

Each member of the council, without conference with each other, wrote his answer and sent it sealed to Washington. They agreed that retaliation was necessary, but most of them thought a demand should be made on Sir Henry Clinton for the person of Captain Lippincott, the murderer of Captain Huddy, and that, in case of refusal, an officer of the same rank with Captain Huddy should be selected by lot from among the prisoners-of-war in their hands.

Washington forwarded the papers to congress, where they were referred to a committee. The body promptly reported in favor of the plan, and recommended that the commander-in-chief should be firmly supported in his demand on Sir Henry Clinton for satisfaction, and in exemplary retaliation.

Copies of these papers were sent to Clinton by Washington on the 21st of April, accompanied by a demand for the surrender of Captain Lippincott. In his letter, the commander-in-chief used the impressive words: "To save the innocent, I demand the guilty. Captain Lippincott, therefore, or the officer who commanded at the execution of Captain Huddy, must be given up; or, if that officer was of inferior rank to him, so many of the perpetrators as will, according to the tariff of exchange, be of an equivalent. To do this will mark the justice of your excellency's character. In failure of it, I shall hold myself justifiable, in the eyes of God and man, for the measure to which I shall resort."

Clinton replied that he learned of Captain Huddy's death only four days before receiving the letter of Washington, and that he had ordered strict inquiry into the "barbarous outrage against humanity," as he called it. He promised to bring the guilty ones to punishment. On the day following, Clinton forbade the Board of Loyalists to remove any prisoner from the prison to which he had been assigned. He also ordered a court-martial of Captain Lippincott.

This trial brought out several astonishing facts. It was clearly proved that Captain Lippincott had acted on verbal orders by Governor Franklin and his board, though it is said that Franklin tried to get Lippincott to testify that such was not the fact. This caused great indignation against Franklin, and gave Lippincott good ground to claim that the responsibility for the outrage was not on him, but on Franklin and his board.

You remember that the label pinned to Huddy's breast, when he was hanged, ended with the words, "Up goes Huddy for Philip White." It was shown on the trial that Captain Huddy was captured four days before the death of Philip White, and that the

label was written in New York and read by Governor Franklin, before Lippincott went forth to execute Huddy. The fact was, White was a New York refugee marauding in New Jersey, where he was captured and placed in a wagon to be taken to Monmouth jail. On the way thither, he made a fierce effort to escape, and was shot by his guard.

The Board of Loyalists did not charge Huddy with the death of Philip White, but plead that the rebels in Monmouth were so severe upon the loyalists, that it was necessary to teach them a lesson, and unfortunately for Captain Huddy he was used for that purpose. Captain Lippincott was pronounced not guilty, and the odium was thrown upon Franklin's board, while Franklin himself had hastily sailed for England.

A BRITISH GRENADIER.

General Washington was at once informed of the verdict. On the 5th of May, Sir Henry Clinton was relieved, and Sir Guy Carleton, having reached New York, assumed command of the British army in America. You remember that he was governor of Canada during the early years of the Revolution, and was a humane man. He repeated to Washington the regret expressed by Clinton, and said that though Lippincott had been acquitted he reprobated his act, and would push the inquiry further. He disbanded the Board of Loyalists, and wrote to General Washington that he meant "to preserve the name of Englishmen from reproach, and to pursue every measure that might tend to prevent these criminal excesses of individuals."

About this time, Captain Adam Huyler of Brunswick (now *New* Brunswick), an intimate friend of Captain Huddy, and fully as brave, resolved to bring matters to a focus by a daring act. One night, with a number of comrades, all disguised, he rowed across the bay in a small boat, landed at the White Hall wharf at nine o'clock, and entered the house of Captain Lippincott. The latter was attending a cock-fight, and Huyler dared not wait. Had Lippincott been at home, he would have been hanged before morning.

General Washington could not accept such a conclusion of the crime. Although kind-hearted, he knew when to be stern. He ordered General Moses Hazen, at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, to select by lot and forward to the army for execution in satisfaction for the murder of Huddy, a British captain, if he had one in his possession, and if not, a lieutenant, from among the prisoners at any of the posts, either in Pennsylvania or Mary-

land. Accordingly, on May 27th, thirteen officers confined at York, were ordered to Lancaster, where the drawing took place.

You can imagine the intense interest the officers felt in the proceedings. Thirteen pieces of paper were placed in a hat and on one the word "unfortunate" was written.

LORD SHELBURNE.

Whoever drew that would be condemned to suffer death for the murder of Captain Huddy. As the men looked in each others' faces, they knew that one of them was doomed, and no doubt each asked himself, "Is it I?" When the hand was timidly thrust into the hat, and one of the slips drawn out, how each soldier must have held his breath, as he looked to see whether the fatal word was written on it!

When Captain Charles Asgill, of the first regiment of foot, glanced at his slip, he saw the word "unfortunate" written across the face. He was the victim.

The captain was only nineteen years old and was accomplished as well as brave. Instead of trembling and showing fear, he smiled and said, "I knew it would be so; I never won so much as a bet of backgammon in my life."

Of course it was a vast relief to the other twelve officers, one of whom sat up with Asgill all that night, fearing he would escape and compel another drawing. He was sent to Philadelphia under guard, and thence to Chatham, in Morris County, New Jersey, where a part of the American army was stationed.

But a strange mistake had been made. Captain Asgill was not an unconditional prisoner, for he had been included in the capitulation of Yorktown, and was awaiting exchange. General Washington was distressed and wrote to General Lincoln: "Congress by their resolve have unanimously approved of my determination to retaliate; the army have advised it and the country look for it. But how far it is justifiable upon an officer under the faith of a capitulation, if none other can be had, is the question."

When Captain Asgill was taken to Chatham, he was accompanied by two of his friends, one of whom was allowed by Washington to visit Sir Guy Carleton, in New York. This friend, Captain Ludlow, of his own regiment, was impressed with the fact expressed in the touching words of Washington, "My resolutions have been grounded on so mature deliberation, that they must remain unalterably fixed. While duty calls me to make this decisive determination, humanity dictates a tear for the unfortunate offering, and inclines me to say that I most devoutly wish his life may be spared. This happy event may be attained, but it must be effected by the British commander-in-chief. He knows the alternative that will accomplish it."

You can readily see the meaning of the last sentence. All that Sir Guy Carleton had to do was to surrender Captain Lippincott, the murderer of Captain Huddy. Instead of doing so, however, he laid the facts before his government. The sympathy for the unfortunate Captain Asgill was widespread both in Europe and in this country. While no one could censure Washington, all felt the deepest sorrow for the brave young officer, thus condemned to death through no fault of his own.

Captain Asgill was the only son of a wealthy baronet, Sir Charles Asgill, who was in such feeble health that he was not allowed to know any thing of the dreadful fate which hung over his son. The sister of the latter suffered such anguish that for a time her reason departed.

The mother, however, Lady Theresa Asgill, did more than bewail the impending execution of her only son. She went directly to the king and made such an appeal that he ordered Sir Guy Carleton to give up at once the author of the crime for punishment. But there was enough power among the American loyalists in England to prevent this order being sent across the ocean, or if it was sent secretly it was never obeyed.

Lady Asgill also wrote to the Count de Vergennes, prime minister of Louis XVI., begging him to intercede with General Washington. The count complied, inclosing the letter of the sorrowing mother, and writing, "Your excellency will not read this letter without being extremely affected. It had that effect upon the king and upon the queen to whom I communicated it. The goodness of their majesties' hearts induced them to desire that the inquietude of an unfortunate mother may be calmed, and her tenderness

re-assured. There is one consideration, sir, which, though it is not decisive, may have an influence on your resolution. Captain Asgill is, doubtless, your prisoner, but he is among those whom the arms of the king contributed to put into your hands at York-town."

It is doubtful whether Washington was ever clearly satisfied that it would be right to execute Captain Asgill, and several circumstances, before the reception of the above letter, caused him to hesitate, and then to delay action. The states-general of Holland sent an appeal to the Continental congress asking for the pardon of the officer. The latter wrote to Sir Guy Carleton, begging him to do what he could to avert his awful doom.

Washington himself was anxious that some way should open out of the painful situation. But congress showed no wish to do any thing, and time was passing. Benjamin Franklin, in a letter to Richard Oswald, July 28th, said: "It can not be supposed that General Washington has the least desire of taking the life of the gentleman. If the English refuse to deliver up or to punish this murderer, it is saying that they choose to preserve him rather than Captain Asgill."

The case was sharply stated by Thomas Paine in one of his letters to Clinton, signed "Common Sense": "The villain and the victim are here separated characters. You hold the one and we hold the other. You disown or affect to disown and reprobate the conduct of Lippincott; yet you give him sanctuary, and by so doing you as effectually become the executioner of Asgill as if you put the rope round his neck and dismissed him from the world. Whatever your feelings on the extraordinary occasion may be, are best known to yourself. Within the grave of your own mind lies buried the fate of Asgill. He becomes the corpse of your will or the survivor of your justice. Deliver up the one and you save the other; withhold the one and the other dies by your choice. On our part the case is exceedingly plain; an officer has been taken from his confinement and murdered, and the murderer is within your lines."

It seems strange that Carleton should persist in keeping such a criminal under his protection, when France, England and many people desired his punishment that the innocent might be saved. Washington exchanged several letters with Carleton during the month of August, and in one of his communications to congress, the American commander-in-chief said that the action of the British chief in giving assurances that further inquiries should be made, and his reprobation of the crime, placed the matter upon an extremely delicate footing.

All this time poor Asgill was in the most trying suspense, not knowing what hour would bring the order for his execution. He was kindly treated, however, and, during the latter part of August and September, was allowed to go about on parole in the villages of Chatham and Morristown.

The letter of Count de Vergennes reached Washington October 25th, and sensibly affected him. He sent the communications to congress, and on the 7th of November that body passed the following:

"*Resolved*, That the commander-in-chief be and he is hereby directed to set Captain Asgill at liberty."

A few days later a copy of this act of congress was sent to Captain Asgill, with a

letter of General Washington, kind, sympathetic and dignified, to which, however, it is said Captain Asgill never replied. He returned to England, landing at Falmouth, December 15, 1782. The next year he visited France with his mother and sister to thank King Louis XVI. and his beautiful queen, Marie Antoinette, for their intercession in his behalf.

Having performed this merciful act, Washington now pressed upon Sir Guy Carleton the fulfillment of his promise to do justice to the memory of the murdered Captain Huddy. The British commander-in-chief perhaps saw that the end of the war was near, and though he kept the letter of his pledge he did not keep its spirit. The investigation went on so slowly that nothing was effected, and Captain Lippincott was never punished for his cruel murder of Captain Huddy. He never dared to return to Monmouth County, however, and spent the rest of his life in the British provinces, whither many of the Tories removed after the Revolution.

Let us go back now a few months in the history of events. Washington, while at Morristown, in the latter part of March, was a party to an extraordinary scheme. Colonel Matthias Ogden reminded the commander-in-chief that Prince William Henry, the king's third son, was at that time serving as midshipman on board of one of Admiral Digby's ships, and was staying at New York with his commander. Colonel Ogden proposed that the prince and admiral should be surprised in their quarters, and carried off. His plan was that he himself, a captain, a subaltern, three sergeants, and thirty-six men should embark from the Jersey shore in four whale boats, with muffled oars, and should land in New York at half-past nine, at a wharf not far from Hanover Square, where the two distinguished persons were staying. Part of the men were to guard the boats while the rest forced the doors.

With the prince and admiral as prisoners, the Americans would be in better condition to force a treaty of peace. The daring Colonel Ogden had every particular of the plot arranged when he explained it to Washington. The latter listened attentively, and gave his consent on condition that no indignity should be offered the young prince or the admiral.

Of course, it can not be known whether or not the scheme was feasible, for it was never tried. It would probably have failed, for the British in New York were suspicious of something of the kind, and were more than usually vigilant.

CHAPTER XVI.

1782. THE PRELIMINARIES OF PEACE.

MEANWHILE in England the opposition to the war was steadily growing. The West India merchants declared in public meeting that their total ruin was close at hand if hostilities were not stopped. Gatherings were held in different parts of the kingdom, at which resolutions were passed against a continuance of the struggle. Mismanagement in other quarters added to the opposition. Finally, after several failures in parliament, the opponents of the war found themselves strong enough to pass an address, asking the king not to prosecute the struggle any further. Growing bolder and stronger, another address was passed on the 4th of March, 1782, setting forth that parliament would consider as enemies to the sovereign and the country all those who should advise a continuance of the war in America. The sun of American liberty was already above the horizon.

The ministry of Lord North, which had carried on the war, went out of existence soon after, and was succeeded by that of Lord Rockingham, which of course was composed of friends of America. It was this ministry that appointed Sir Guy Carleton to the command of the British army in America, and instructed him to adopt the most conciliatory policy toward the Americans. Admiral Digby was associated with him as joint commissioner for negotiating a peace.

Our people were as anxious as those in the mother country to end the long and exhausting struggle. The finances were in the worst possible condition; the people were beginning to murmur over the burdens they had to bear, and the army more than once was on the verge of revolt. Many of the soldiers were in rags and half-starved, and their families were equally desolate.

The discontent among the military led to a most remarkable episode in the life of General Washington. One of the officers serving under him was Colonel Lewis Nicola, who had formerly been in command of Fort Mifflin. After consulting with other officers, he presented their grievances to the commander-in-chief, with whom he was on intimate terms. Washington listened with sympathetic interest, and promised to do all he could, to secure them justice. In the month of May, Colonel Nicola made a startling communication to the commander-in-chief.

The colonel referred to the sad condition of the army, and questioned whether America would ever prosper as a republic. He maintained that the English Constitution embodied the most successful form of government in history, and proposed that such a constitution should be established in this country, with Washington as KING!

The proposal came like a thunder clap to the Father of his Country. On the 22d

of May, Washington said in reply, that he learned with the most painful astonishment that such ideas existed in the army. He was at a loss, he said, to conceive what part of his conduct could have prompted an address that to him seemed big with mischief to the country. He concluded with the following noble sentiments: "Let me conjure you, if you have any regard for your country, concern for yourself or posterity, or respect for me, to banish these thoughts from your mind, and never communicate, as from yourself or any one else, a sentiment of the like nature."

No fear of the proposals being repeated after such a reply as that! Washington promised to keep the communication a secret, unless the good of the country should make it necessary to reveal it.

On the 7th of May Washington was informed by Sir Guy Carleton that he was authorized by the English government to negotiate a peace. He received also printed copies of the proceedings of the House of Commons, when, on the 4th of March, the address to the king in favor of peace was agreed to without a division, and a copy of the bill, authorizing the king to conclude a peace or truce with the revolted provinces of North America. A similar letter was sent by Carleton to congress, with a request to Washington for a passport for the person authorized to deliver it.

Washington sent the letter to congress, but refused the passport. His reason for this was that no assurance had been given that the commissioners had the power to offer any other terms than those already rejected. Furthermore, the members of congress had become suspicious of the offers which seemed intended to throw them off their guard, and they would not consent to enter into any treaty without the agreement of France. Peace, however, had virtually come in the north, though it had not been officially declared. Sir Guy Carleton took no military measures except by way of defense, while Washington made no movement against New York, and a virtual truce prevailed along the Hudson.

But the American commander-in-chief never allowed himself to be thrown off his guard. He resolved that England should yield every thing for which the colonies had fought. He urged that the country should remain in arms, on the ground that favorable terms are easily secured by being prepared for a resumption of hostilities. Precaution could do no harm, while over-confidence might work great injury. The able General Greene did his utmost to enforce the views of his chief.

Although peace seemed very near in the north, matters were in a much more disturbed state in the south. Many of the troops there were so nearly naked that they refused to show themselves. The Quaker general received a few re-enforcements from Yorktown under General St. Clair, after which he detached some of his troops and led them into Georgia. When the Americans crossed the Santee, General Clarke, commanding the British forces, retreated to Savannah. General Wayne followed, and some skirmishing took place at the outposts of the town, and on the 11th of July the garrison evacuated Savannah and withdrew from the state.

On the 7th of August General Leslie, who held Charleston, announced to his troops that the city would soon be evacuated, but in reality it did not take place until the 14th of December. He proposed to Greene a suspension of hostilities, but the latter

refused. Leslie even offered full payment for all provisions sent into the town, threatening to take them without pay, if withheld. His proposal being refused, the British general sent foraging expeditions into the country, and a number of collisions took place. In one of these Lieutenant-colonel Laurens, son of Henry Laurens, once president of congress, was killed.

The negotiations for peace being delayed, Benjamin Franklin, United States minister in Paris, drew up a paper suggesting that in order to bring about a lasting peace between England and the United States, the former should cede to France the province of Canada, and acknowledge the independence of the United States. Richard Oswald, to whom this proposition was made, thought so well of it that he carried it to London. There he speedily learned that it could not even be submitted to parliament. He was sent back to Paris with new proposals. By these the independence of the United States was to be conceded, but all other things were to remain as at the peace of 1763.

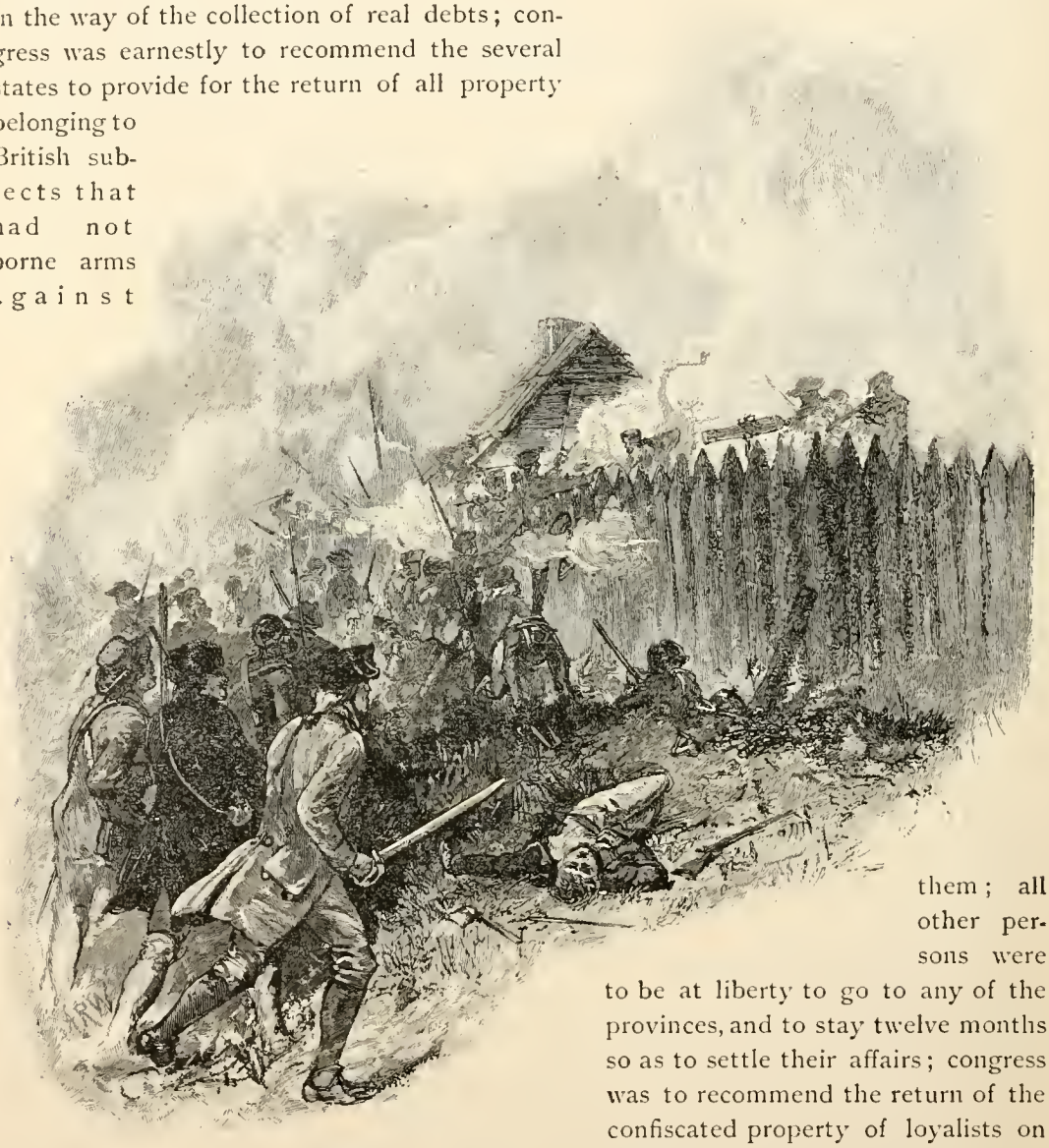
Mr. Thomas Grenville was sent as a second agent to Paris to treat with the Count de Vergennes. Oswald and Grenville did not agree, as was the case with their principals in London, and for a time little progress was made. On the 10th of July Franklin had an interview with Oswald, and submitted conditions of peace. They were: the independence of the thirteen states; the withdrawal of all British troops; for boundaries, the Mississippi toward the west, and, in the direction of Canada, those existing previous to 1774; and finally the freedom of fishing off Newfoundland and elsewhere. Respecting the Tories, Franklin said that their estates had been confiscated by the laws of the particular states to which they belonged, and congress had no power to repeal such laws. He claimed that the British had set the example by confiscating and selling the lands of the patriots in the Carolinas; and that the American commissioners for peace could not allow pay of refugees to form any part of the treaty.

By this time the king was ready for peace, and pledged himself to agree to whatever terms were concluded between Oswald and the American commissioners. The latter finally included John Jay, who reached Paris from Spain, John Adams, who came from Holland, and Henry Laurens, who arrived from London. On the arrival of Jay in Paris, he found the French minister eager to secure for Spain the right to the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi, and to the immense territories drained by the Father of Waters.

Every thing was fairly progressing, though some delay was caused by Jay's obstinacy on several preliminary points. It would be tedious to follow all the particulars of these negotiations. John Adams arrived in Paris on the 26th of October, and was not regarded with great favor either by the French or the English. The latter looked upon him as one of the most ungovernable of rebels, while France knew he had little faith in her, and believed that she held only the most selfish designs toward the United States.

However, all parties were actuated by a desire for peace, and the negotiations made substantial progress. The longest delay was over the question of fisheries, but an agreement was reached at last. Preliminary articles were signed on the 30th of November, 1782, by Richard Oswald for Great Britain, and by Franklin, Jay, Adams and Laurens for the United States. The terms agreed upon were in substance as follows:

First of all, Great Britain acknowledged the thirteen states to be free, sovereign and independent, and renounced all claim to any part thereof; the boundaries were fixed as heretofore agreed to by each state; the Americans had full right to fish on all the banks and coasts of Newfoundland, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on all other British North American waters; no obstacle was to be put in the way of the collection of real debts; congress was earnestly to recommend the several states to provide for the return of all property belonging to British subjects that had not borne arms against them; all other persons were to be at liberty to go to any of the provinces, and to stay twelve months so as to settle their affairs; congress was to recommend the return of the confiscated property of loyalists on their repayment of the sums for which it had been sold; there were to be no further persecutions or confiscations; all persons in prison on political charges, and all prisoners on both sides, were to be released; the British armies, garrisons and fleets were to be withdrawn from the United States, without disturbance of the



ATTACK ON THE BLOCK-HOUSE AT TOMS RIVER.

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HUDDY TAKEN TO BE HANGED. (*See page 162.*)

Drawn by Francis Christy.

negroes or other property of the Americans; and the Mississippi was to remain open to the subjects of both countries. If any territory was conquered by the soldiers of either nation, after the signing of the articles, and before they reached America, such territory should be restored without compensation.

You know how resolute King George was from the first that the American colonies should be conquered. None of his subjects was more determined than the king. He was just as aggressive as ever when all England was shaken by the news of the capture of Cornwallis and his army; but, since then, his eyes were opened, and he saw that no power on earth could save to him the colonies across the sea. You can feel for the old monarch, when, on the 5th of December, he announced to parliament that he had gone the full length of the powers vested in him in declaring the colonies of North America free and independent states. In concluding his announcement, he said: "In thus admitting their separation from the crown of these kingdoms, I have sacrificed every consideration of my own to the wishes and opinions of my people. I make it my humble and earnest prayer to Almighty God that Great Britain may not feel the evils which might result from so great a dismemberment of the empire; and that America may be free from the calamities which have formerly proved in the mother country how essential monarchy is to the enjoyment of constitutional liberty. Religion, language, interest, affections, may, and I hope will, yet prove a bond of permanent union between the two countries. To this end, neither attention nor disposition on my part shall be wanting."

Though there could be little doubt, as the year 1782 progressed, that peace was certain, Washington and Greene maintained their policy of being prepared for war. The inactivity of the English relieved the Americans from misgiving, but the French feared that some of the British in New York would be sent to the West Indies to operate against the French possessions. During the summer, Washington wrote to Rochambeau, advising him to march his regiments to the Hudson, and unite with the forces of the United States. The advice was followed, and, about the middle of September, the French crossed the Hudson at King's Ferry to Verplanck's Point, afterward removing to the neighborhood of Crompond, about ten miles distant. Washington concentrated his army at his former encampment about Newburgh, where he established his head-quarters for the winter.

One of the most interesting buildings of this country to-day is the rough stone structure at Newburgh, now known as Washington's Head-quarters. It is one story high, fifty feet front and not quite so deep. The north-east portion was erected in 1750. While Washington had his head-quarters there, his family consisted of himself, his wife, and his aid-de-camp, Major Tighlman. The large apartment known as "The room with seven doors and one window," was used as the dining and sitting room.

In this interesting building you will find more than eight hundred relics, including letters to and from Washington, military orders, passes to soldiers, portions of personal attire and camp equipage, swords, guns and many other curiosities that are well worth a long journey to see.

Toward the close of October, the French troops marched to Boston, where they

embarked near the end of the year for the West Indies. While the terms of peace were pending there was much skirmishing and desultory fighting.

Some of the Tories were as ferocious as tigers, and Captain James Delancey of Westchester was one of the worst. He succeeded Andrè as adjutant-general of the British army. It was he who on the 13th of May, 1781, commanded in an attack on Croton Bridge, which, under circumstances of shocking cruelty, resulted in the death of an officer of great ability, Colonel Christopher Greene, of Rhode Island, a relative of General Nathaniel Greene.

In April, 1782, Delancey caused three captured patriots to be publicly executed within the British lines. Many thrilling encounters took place, but it was in the south that anarchy ran riot during the year 1782. Probably no greater ruffian than David Fanning ever lived. He held under the British a commission as colonel of the loyal militia in Randolph and Chatham counties, North Carolina, with authority to grant commissions to others as captains and subalterns. As specimens of the deeds done by him, I note the following:

In the month of March Fanning and his companions visited the plantation of Andrew Balfour, of Randolph County, who had been a member of the state legislature, and then an officer of the militia. Having broken into the house, they fired twice at him, in the presence of his sister and daughter, badly wounding him each time. They burned the house, ravaged the plantation, and shot an officer who was fleeing under cover of darkness. Visiting the house of another officer, they told him that if he would come out they would give him his parole. Upon his refusal, what happened I will give you in Fanning's own words, as he wrote them in his journal:

"With that, I ordered the house to be set on fire. As soon as he saw the flames increasing he called out to me to spare his house for his wife's sake and children's sake, and he would walk out with his arms in his hands. I answered him that, if he would walk out, his house should be spared for his wife and children. When he came out, he he said, 'Here I am;' with that he received two balls through his body."

The rest of the entry reads: "I proceeded on to one Major Dugin's plantation, and destroyed all his property, and all the rebel officers' property in the settlement, for the distance of forty miles. On our way I catched a commissary from Salisbury, and delivered him up to some of my men whom he had treated ill when prisoners, and they immediately hung him. On the 18th of April I set out for Chatham, where I learned that a wedding was to be that day. We surrounded the house, and drove all out, one by one. I found one concealed up-stairs. Having my pistols in my hand, I discharged them both at his breast; he fell, and that night expired."

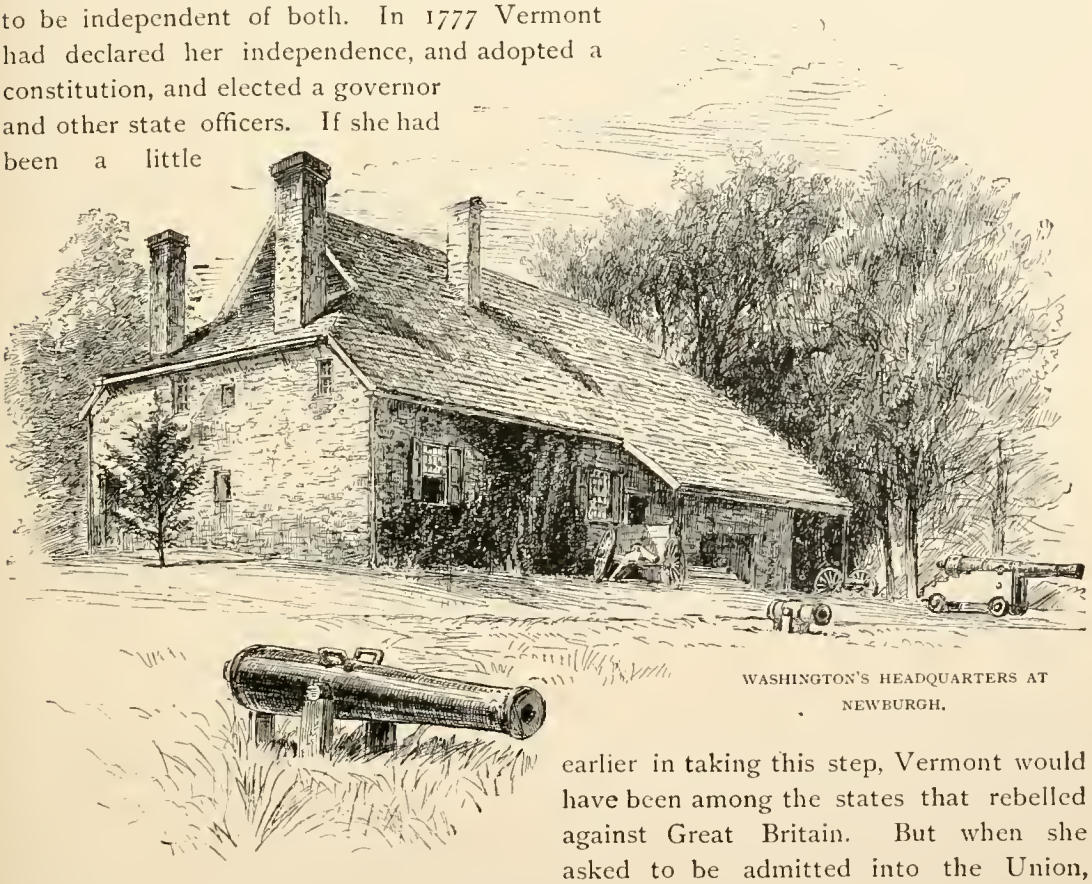
It makes one's blood boil to read of such atrocities, but sad to say they were repeated again and again in different sections of the country, especially in the south. But Carleton, as you have been told, followed a conciliatory course toward the Americans. He was an able soldier, and did all he could to hasten a firm and lasting peace. He treated his prisoners with great care and set many of them free. These, of course, were glad to get their liberty, but doubtless they would have fared better had they remained captives. A number of Carolinians who had been banished from Charleston

Our domestic animals, as well as our agriculture, are inferior to yours in point of size; but this does not proceed from any defect in the stamina of them, but to deficient care in providing for their support; experience having abundantly evinced that, where our pastures are as well improved as the soil & climate will admit; - where a competent store of wholesome provender is laid up - and proper care used in serving it, that our horses, black cattle, sheep &c are not inferior to the best of their respective kinds which have been imported from England. - Nor is the wool of our sheep inferior to that of the common sort with you: - as a proof - after the Peace of Paris in 1783, and my return to the occupations of a farmer, I paid particular attention to my breed of sheep (of which I usually kept about seven or eight hundred). - By this attention, at the shearing of 1789 the fleeces yielded me the average quantity of 5¼ lb of wool; - a fleece of which promiscuously taken, I sent to Mr. Arthur Young. Who put it, for examination, into the hands of Manufacturers. - These pronounced it to be equal in quality to the Kentish Wool. -

FAC-SIMILE OF A PORTION OF A LETTER FROM WASHINGTON, ADDRESSED TO SIR J. SINCLAIR, BART.

at the fall of that city were, at the request of Washington, sent back to their homes at the expense of the British government. Carleton assured Washington that every thing should be done to make them forget what they had suffered. A projected raid into the state of New York by a party of Indians was forbidden by the English commander, who thus showed his desire to bring about a real peace.

You will be surprised to learn that Vermont came near causing civil war on the northern frontier. She was not a state, but was anxious to become one. The trouble was, that New York and New Hampshire each claimed her, and each had strong support in congress. The "Green Mountain Boys" wanted to be independent of both. In 1777 Vermont had declared her independence, and adopted a constitution, and elected a governor and other state officers. If she had been a little earlier in taking this step, Vermont would have been among the states that rebelled against Great Britain. But when she asked to be admitted into the Union, the dispute over her right to existence and the jealousy of the southern colonies kept her out.



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT NEWBURGH.

The anger of the Green Mountain boys was aroused. No patriots had fought harder than they, and they certainly had good cause to feel aggrieved. They applied to congress in 1780, declaring that if refused they would propose to New York and the other New England States an alliance for mutual defense, independent of congress and the other states. If neither congress nor the northern states would listen to them, they would open negotiations with Great Britain for a cessation of hostilities, "without regard to any other man or body of men."

This certainly was a bold threat, but congress treated the Vermont agents coldly. They made the proposal for an alliance to the neighboring states, but without success. New York, however, felt such sympathy for her that in February, 1781, her senate, with only one opposing vote, proposed to recognize the independence of the new state. The house probably would have done the same, had not Governor Clinton threatened, unless the subject was dropped, to disband the legislature.

In the course of a few weeks an immense invasion from Canada threatened Vermont. Washington had not a man to spare, and New York and Vermont were thrown into a panic. Vermont sent Ira Allen, a brother of the famous Ethan Allen, as a commissioner to the Isle aux Noix. In May he met commissioners from Canada, and the two bodies agreed upon an armistice, an exchange of prisoners, and a temporary cessation of hostilities.

In taking this step, Vermont acted as an independent state. Great Britain saw a chance to inflict great harm upon the cause of independence. Two years before this incident, the governor of Canada had written to the British government about the quarrel between Vermont and her neighbors, and, as a consequence, overtures were made to the province to return to its allegiance to the king. In February, 1782, Vermont was assured that if she would rebel, she should be given her independence as a British province. Ethan Allen, who was made the recipient of this guarantee, consulted with the governor and others, and sent the communication to congress. In April the proposal was laid before the general assembly of the state, and Allen discussed the question with the Canadian commissioners. Great misgiving was caused by this dalliance with the public enemy, but nothing came of it, though it was not until February 18, 1791, that the act passed congress that admitted Vermont as a state.

CHAPTER XVII.

1783. PEACE.

IT is just as impossible for any nation to carry on war without money as it is without men. I have already referred, in several places, to the poverty of the United States during the Revolution. It grew worse and worse, till it became absolutely desperate. The minister of finance,. Robert Morris, a merchant of enormous wealth, impoverished himself that he might furnish means to the patriot army, and no soldier suffered more in the field than did this great financier in his exertions to prevent the disbandment of the army. He never ceased his efforts through the long weary years, when so many others gave up, but toiled night and day to secure funds to support the army.

Morris, like a great many others, believed that a public debt was a good thing, because it would bring the states closer together. His scheme for a national bank received the assent of only seven of the thirteen states, but congress had pledged its word and the bank was established, but was forbidden to exercise its powers in any state in a manner repugnant to the laws or constitution of such state. The local assemblies, however, were urged to give the incorporating ordinance its full operation.

The national bank commenced business in Philadelphia on the 7th of January, 1782. Its transactions proved very profitable to the federal government. Its notes were payable in specie at Philadelphia, but were distrusted at a distance, and the bank, therefore, was able to buy up its own notes at from ten to fifteen per cent. discount.

The necessity for the corporation is shown in the fact that the public funds were exhausted; there was not a dollar in the treasury, and, up to the spring of 1782, Morris had received no money whatever from any state. The states were half a million dollars in debt on the year's taxes, which, on the system of credit created by this skillful financier, had been raised by anticipation. To show in what distressing financial straits the country stood at that time, I quote from a letter written on the 14th of May, 1782, by Morris, to John Hancock, formerly president of congress, and then governor of Massachusetts: "On the 1st of January, 1782, with a heavy arrearage for 1781 unpaid on the face of the requisitions of congress, I had to provide for a three months' expenditure, when no man would trust the public for a single dollar: your legislature knew the state of public credit as well as I did. Instead of providing money for the 1st of April, they have made no effort for this purpose that can take effect before the 1st of June. Now then, let us suppose every state in the Union to be as negligent (and many of them are much more so), what can gentlemen promise themselves? I apprehend the most terrible consequences. I beg you to press an immediate payment of money, the necessities of which it is not easy to conceive, nor prudent to declare."

The demands were so pressing that Morris issued drafts for 100,000 livres on the mere chance of further help from Paris. Shortly after, news came that the king of France had loaned six millions of livres, with the intimation that no more need be expected. Morris requested the minister of France, the secretary for foreign affairs, and the secretary of war, to keep the knowledge of the grant from congress and from all other persons, lest the state legislatures that had not yet passed their tax bills should think it unnecessary to do so.

You have seen some of the specimens of the old Continental currency used by the patriots during the Revolution. It was worth almost nothing during the closing years of the war. On the 31st of July, 1782, Morris sent to congress his budget, or estimate of expenses, for 1783. It amounted to nine millions of dollars. All that could be done was to borrow four millions and raise the other five millions by quotas among the states. The proposal to give congress the right to levy a duty of five per cent. on imports was pressed on the state legislatures; but Virginia and several others refused assent. When General Greene, writing from the south, apologized for not making some returns, he gave as a reason, that there were not two quires of paper in the whole army on which to write the returns. Morris said in reply, "You must continue your exertions with or without men, or provisions, clothing or pay." To Washington, who fully appreciated the giant task before Morris, the latter wrote, "I pray that Heaven may direct your mind to some mode by which we may yet be saved."

I have told enough to show that the lack of money alone, to say nothing of other causes, would soon have ended successful resistance on the part of the Americans. But, fortunately, peace was near. The terms of the preliminary treaty, as already given, were ratified by congress, but it was not until the 3d of September, 1783, that the final treaty was agreed upon by all the nations that had been at war. On that day, the ambassadors of Holland, Spain, England, France and the United States, in a solemn conference in Paris, signed the articles of peace.

The terms of this memorable treaty of 1783, may be summed up as follows: A full recognition of the independence of the United States; the recession by Great Britain of Florida to Spain; the surrender of the rest of the territory east of the Mississippi and south of the Great Lakes to the United States; the free navigation of the Mississippi and the lakes by American vessels; the concession of mutual rights in the Newfoundland fisheries; and the retention by Great Britain of Canada and Nova Scotia, with the exclusive control of the St. Lawrence.

A hundred years ago news traveled much more slowly than to-day, and it was a long time before the conclusion of peace became known to the parties concerned. Thousands of men were in arms, and an idle army is sometimes as dangerous as an active one, though in the former case it is the friends of the troops as well as themselves who are the ones likely to suffer.

The proposition that Washington should establish a monarchy in this country with himself as king would have been pleasing to many more than the few officers in favor of such a step. The great need was a strong, central government, that could not only recommend legislation, but could also enforce it.

FANNING'S ATROCITY: MURDER OF AN AMERICAN PLANTER. (*See page 175.*)

Pen drawing by W. L. Jumel.

Discontent prevailed during the winter of 1782–3. Congress had passed a resolution to give half-pay to officers that should serve to the end of the war, but many believed that it would never be done, for the treasury was empty, and no one could tell where the funds were to come from. Furthermore, the resolution could not become binding until confirmed by nine of the states, and it was well known that many were opposed to such a step.

The anger of the officers deepened. On the 10th of March, 1783, there was circulated through the camp at Newburgh an anonymous paper calling a meeting of the general and field officers, to consider a letter from a committee of their number, who had been sent to Philadelphia to confer with congress, and to discuss what measures should be taken to secure a redress of their grievances. The meeting was to take place the following day. During the 10th, an anonymous address was circulated. It was of an inflammatory character, meant to excite the soldiers to revolutionary action.

After referring to the fact that he was one of their companions in arms, whose interests and affections bound him to them, the writer recalled what they had suffered at the hands of congress, and assured them that justice never would be done them until that body was compelled to give it.

"If this, then," continued the writer, "be your treatment while the swords you wear are necessary for the defense of America, what have you to expect from peace, when your voice shall sink, and your strength dissipate by division; when those very swords, the instruments and companions of your glory, shall be taken from your sides, and no remaining mark of military distinction be left, but your wants, infirmities, and scars? Can you then consent to be the only sufferers by this revolution, and, retiring from the field, grow old in poverty, wretchedness, and contempt? Can you consent to wade through the vile mire of dependency, and owe to charity the miserable remnant of that life which has hitherto been spent in honor? If you can, go, and carry with you the jest of Tories and the scorn of Whigs; the ridicule, and, what is worse, the pity of the world! Go, starve and be forgotten! But if your spirits should revolt at this; if you have sense enough to discover and spirit sufficient to oppose tyranny, under whatever garb it may assume, whether it be the plain coat of republicanism, or the splendid robe of royalty; if you have yet learned to discriminate between a people and a cause, between men and principles; awake, attend to your situation, and redress yourselves! If the present moment be lost every future effort is in vain; and your threats will be as empty as your entreaties now!"

The writer advised his brethren to appeal not to the justice but to the fears of the government; to assume a bolder, though still a decent tone; to suspect the man who advised greater moderation, and to draw up a "last remonstrance" to congress.

Such an address was like a torch to a magazine. Few leaders would have been equal to the emergency, but Washington proved himself capable of the delicate and dangerous task of pacifying the malcontents.

On the 11th of March the commander-in-chief issued a general order, referring to the proposal for a meeting that day as a disorderly proceeding, but at the same time he himself convened the officers on the 15th, to hear a report of the Philadelphia committee of

the army. By postponing the date of the meeting, Washington gave his men time to think over the matter and to allow their passions to cool. The writer of the anonymous address now issued another, claiming to find in Washington's general order a proof that the head of the army was entirely in favor of his view. But he soon learned his mistake.

At the meeting of officers on the 15th, General Gates, the senior officer present, presided. As soon as the meeting was organized, Washington rose and apologized for his presence, saying that the diligence with which the anonymous writings had been circulated called upon him to give his views, and since the matter was of such importance, he had written them. He then proceeded to read his address. First condemning the unknown writer, he disclaimed the charge that he was indifferent to the interests of the army. "But how," he asked, "are they to be promoted? The way is plain, says the anonymous addresser: if war continues, remove into the unsettled country; there establish yourselves, and leave an ungrateful country to defend itself. But whom are they to defend? Our wives, our children, our farms and other property, which we leave behind us? Or, in the state of hostile separation, are we to take the two first (the latter can not be removed) to perish in a wilderness with hunger, cold and nakedness? If peace takes place, never sheathe your swords, says he, until you have obtained full and ample justice. This dreadful alternative, of either deserting our country in the extremest hour of distress, or turning our arms against it, which is the apparent object, unless congress can be compelled into instant compliance, has something so shocking in it that humanity revolts at the idea. My God! what can this writer have in view by recommending such measures? Can he be a friend to the army? Rather, is he not an insidious foe? Some emissary, perhaps, from New York, plotting the ruin of both by sowing the seeds of discord and separation between the civil and military powers of the continent. And what a compliment does he pay to our understandings when he commends measures, in either alternative, impracticable in their nature!"

Washington then urged patience, assuring them that congress wished to do them justice, but such large bodies, where there was a variety of interests to harmonize, must of necessity move slowly. He pledged them that he would not spare himself in the effort to see their wrongs made right, and begged for more "distinguished proof of unexampled patriotism and patient virtue rising superior to the pressure of the most complicated sufferings."

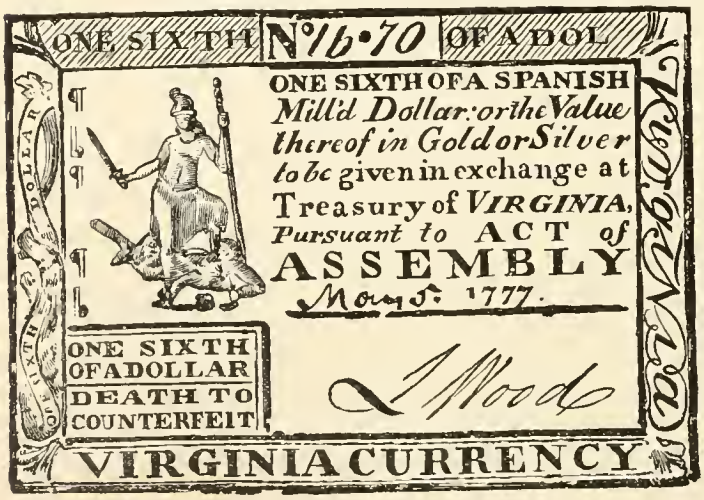
Having read his address, and also a conciliatory letter from a member of congress, Washington withdrew. Resolutions were then put and unanimously carried that the army reciprocated the affectionate expressions of their head, with the greatest sincerity of which the human heart is capable; that they still had an unshaken confidence in the justice of congress and the country, but expected that half-pay or an equivalent would be given them; and that the officers viewed with abhorrence and with disdain the infamous propositions contained in the anonymous address.

Agreeably to his promise, Washington wrote to the president of congress urging the claims of his comrades. A few days later the subject was taken up, and nine states concurred in a resolution commuting the half-pay into a sum equal to five years' whole pay.

Thus Washington turned aside one of the gravest perils that ever threatened the American republic.

Who was the author of the fiery addresses that roused the American officers to the fighting point? You know that General Horatio Gates, because he was senior officer, presided at the meeting to consider the matter. Well, a member of his staff was the author of the anonymous addresses that were circulated in manuscript and copied by many of the officers. He was Major (afterward General) John Armstrong, who no doubt expressed the views of many of his brother officers. In a letter to Armstrong, written on the 3d of February, 1797, Washington said, "I have since had sufficient reason for believing that the object of the author was just, honorable, and friendly to the country, though the means suggested by him were certainly liable to much misunderstanding and abuse."

Two days after the action of congress respecting the half-pay of the officers, the first news of the preliminaries of peace reached Philadelphia. On the 5th of February Lafayette had written from Cadiz, announcing the welcome tidings, and inclosing a copy of the orders given by Count D'Estaing for the purpose of stopping hostilities on the sea. Congress thereupon directed the marine agent of the United States to recall all armed ships cruising under commissions from the American government. On the 4th of April a vessel arrived at Salem, from Nantes, with a printed copy of a declaration of the American ministers in Paris, made on the 20th of February, and setting forth that ratifications of the preliminaries of peace had been exchanged. The captain that brought this news had carried to England, nearly eight years before, the tidings of the battle of Lexington. By another coincidence, the cessation of hostilities with Great Britain was proclaimed in the American camp on the 19th of April, 1783, just eight years, to a day, after the first collision between the Massachusetts yeomen and the soldiers of King George.



VIRGINIA PAPER MONEY.

"Nothing now remains," said the commander-in-chief, in his address to his army, "but for the actors of this mighty scene to preserve a perfect, unvarying consistency of character through the very last act, to close the drama with applause, and to retire from the military theater with the same approbation of angels and men that has crowned all their former virtuous actions."

Washington had some misgiving lest the troops, unable to see the difference between the preliminaries and the actual establishment of peace, would insist on going home at once. Having obtained authority, he issued a large number of furloughs, and the men thus

sent home, carrying their arms with them, were never recalled. This gradual dissolution of the army was fortunate in every respect for the country.

New York was evacuated by the British on the 25th of November, 1783. A body of American soldiers, under the command of General Knox, marched in the morning from Harlem to the Bowery Lane, where they waited till one o'clock, when the British regiments left their posts in the Bowery, and the Americans went forward and took possession of the city. The British detachments had been recalled from the various outposts some days before, and Washington had taken his station at Harlem, accompanied by Governor Clinton, who had summoned the members of the state council to meet at

RECEPTION OF WASHINGTON AND THE AMERICAN ARMY IN NEW YORK.

From an old print.

East Chester on the 21st of November, for the purpose of re-establishing civil government in the districts lately held by the enemy.

When the British troops embarked, Washington and Clinton were escorted with much pomp into the city. They rode on horseback, followed by the lieutenant-governor and members of the council, four abreast, by the speaker of the assembly, by General Knox and the officers of the army, eight abreast, by a body of cavalry, and by many spectators, both on horseback and on foot. The British troops, marching with the precision of a dress parade, were equipped in all the splendor of scarlet uniforms and gleaming arms, while the Americans were ill-clad, weather-beaten and forlorn, but no set of men could have walked more proudly than did the bronzed patriots whose eyes flashed and whose bosoms heaved with the full realization of their glorious triumph.

The anniversary of this event is kept every year, and its centennial celebration in 1883 was one of the most striking ever held in the metropolis of the country.

Washington prepared to go to Annapolis, where congress was then assembling, and where it was his intention to surrender the command of the army. On the 4th of December, a barge was in waiting at Whitehall Ferry to take him across the river to Paulus Hook (now Jersey City). When he entered the large room in Fraunces's tavern, in Broad Street, he found himself surrounded by his old comrades in arms. They loved and reverenced the great man too deeply to allow him to leave without meeting them all for the last time.

It was not often that Washington lost his self-command, but when he looked into the faces of the brave men that had stood by his side in battle and shared with him the sufferings and anguish of the long war, and with him had seen the sun of American independence break through the clouds and rise high in the heavens; when he saw those bronzed cheeks moistened with the tears of affection, the Father of his Country was overcome.

He mastered his emotion enough to say, "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you, most devoutly wishing that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honorable." Then with deeper agitation, he added,

"I can not go to each of you to take my leave, but shall be obliged if each of you will come and take me by the hand."

Silence marked this last, sorrowful farewell, for no one dared trust himself to speak. There were tears in nearly every eye, as the officers in turn wrung the hand of Washington. They followed him from the room, and passing through a corps of light infantry, escorted him to Whitehall Ferry. There he entered the barge, raised his hat, and waved a farewell, which was returned by those on shore until he could be seen no longer.

Washington stayed several days in Philadelphia, where, with the assistance of the comptroller of the treasury, his accounts were audited from the commencement of the war down to the 13th of that month. All these accounts — still preserved — were in his own handwriting. They were kept with much neatness and were so exact that every entry was accompanied by a statement of the cause of the charge. You may recall that when Washington took command of the army, he said he would accept no pay except for actual expenses incurred, and he never did.

The sum total of his accounts was £16,311, 17s., 1d., including a sum of £1,982, 10s. for secret intelligence and service. It became manifest during the adjustment of these accounts that while Washington had never omitted to charge himself with every penny received, he had often, during the hurry of the occasion, forgotten to credit himself with funds paid out. In this way, he really lost a large sum, and thus not only devoted his illustrious abilities to the service of his country without wages, but paid for the privilege of doing so. Where else can such an example be found?

On his journey through New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland, Washington was hailed with enthusiasm as the founder of his country's liberty. He reached Annapolis on the evening of the 19th of December, and prepared for the great closing scene of his mili-

WASHINGTON SURRENDERING HIS COMMISSION.

tary life. The next day he informed congress of his presence, and asked in what manner it would be most proper to offer his resignation. It was decided that the ceremony should be public, and in the hall of congress. At noon on the 23d, the gallery and a large part of the floor of the hall of congress were filled with ladies, public functionaries and general officers. The members of congress were seated and covered ; the rest were standing and uncovered.

As Washington entered, he was escorted by the secretary of congress to the chair set aside for him. The secretary commanded silence, and, after a brief pause, the president, General Mifflin, announced that the United States was prepared to receive the general's communication. Rising and addressing the president, Washington said: — "The great events on which my resignation depended having at length taken place, I have now the honor of offering my sincere congratulations to congress, and of presenting myself before them to surrender into their hands the trust committed to me, and to claim the indulgence of retiring from the service of my country. Happy in the confirmation of our independence and sovereignty, and pleased with the opportunity afforded the United States of becoming a respectable nation, I resign with satisfaction the appointment I accepted with diffidence ; a diffidence in my abilities to accomplish so arduous a task, which, however, was superseded by a confidence in the rectitude of our cause, the support of the supreme power of the Union, and the patronage of Heaven."

He recommended to the favorable action of congress those officers that had remained in the service to the last, and concluded, " Having now finished the work assigned me, I retire from the great theater of action ; and, bidding an affectionate farewell to this august body, under whose orders I have so long acted, I here offer my commission, and take my leave of all the employments of public life."

Washington then handed his commission and a copy of his address to the president and sat down, rising a few seconds later to receive the reply of the president:

"You have conducted the great military contest with wisdom and fortitude, invariably regarding the rights of the civil power through all disasters and changes. You have, by the love and confidence of your fellow-citizens, enabled them to display their martial genius and transmit their fame to posterity. You have persevered till these United States, aided by a magnanimous king and nation, have been enabled under a just Providence, to close the war in freedom, safety and independence. . . . We feel with you our obligations to the army in general, and will particularly charge ourselves with the interests of those confidential officers who have attended your person to this affecting moment."

There certainly is no grander scene in all our history than that of Washington surrendering his commission. He could have made himself dictator, had he wished ; he had been asked to become king, but he chose to lay his stainless sword on the altar of his country, and to become a simple citizen of the republic he had founded.

PART IV.—THE BUILDING OF THE NATION.

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CHAPTER XVIII.

THE FORMATIVE PERIOD.

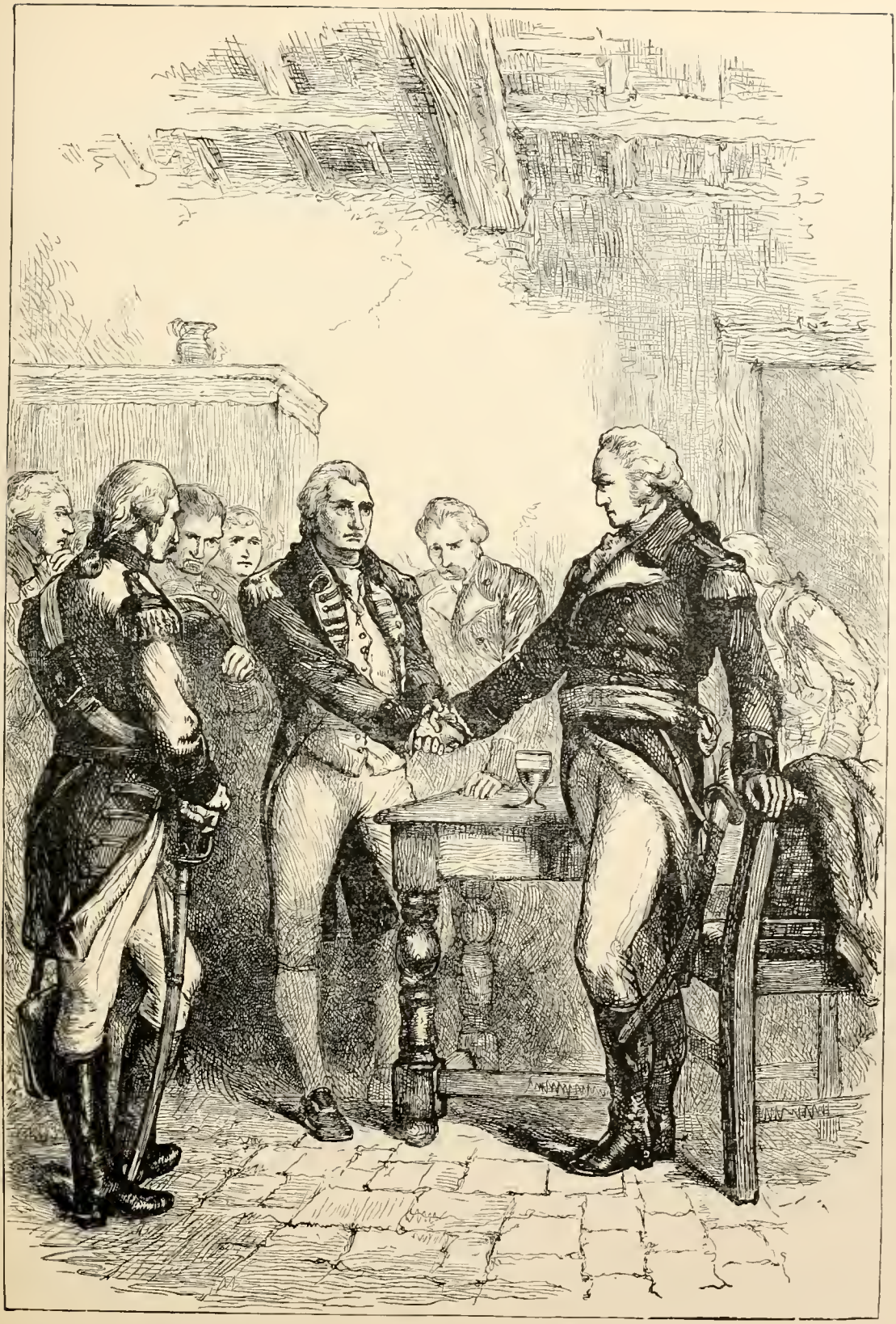
NOW that the United States of America had a place among the nations of the earth, you would think that the people had only to enjoy their prosperity. With the close of the Revolution and the coming of peace, it would seem that all troubles ought to have been at an end. But the suffering and misery of war do not cease with the furling of banners and the stacking of arms.

Commerce was ruined, trade disorganized, and the people were as poor as they could be. The states, although striving for the same object, were really independent of each other. Congress could only ask them to do certain things believed to be for the public good. The states did as they pleased, and generally paid no attention to appeals from congress, sometimes almost piteous. Washington and the chief statesmen saw the need of a strong central government, which, having clearly defined powers, should also have the means of enforcing them.

You have been told about the Articles of Confederation agreed to by congress, in 1777. They were ardently supported by Washington, but it was not until March, 1781, that the last state, Maryland, subscribed to them. But they were defective and doomed to failure. They could not meet the wants of the young nation.

At the close of the war, the Southern States contained a little more than a million inhabitants, while there was about a million and a half in the Northern and Middle States. Virginia was the most populous, having 400,000, while Pennsylvania and Massachusetts each held 350,000. Though New York City is now the metropolis of the Union, it was not so at the close of the Revolution. You know that it was occupied almost the entire time by the British, who did it great harm. It had less than 14,000 inhabitants, while Boston contained 20,000 and Philadelphia 40,000.

England's laws of commerce injured the United States, while the regulations of the states injured each other. There was no public mint, and the states as well as congress issued money. The estimated debt of our country, in the spring of 1783, was $42,000,000, and that of the separate states $20,000,000. The difficulty met by British subjects in collecting debts from Americans gave Great Britain an excuse for not evacuating her posts on our frontiers, as the treaty required her to do. Every thing was so



WASHINGTON TAKING LEAVE OF HIS OLD COMRADES. (*See page 186.*)

Pen drawing by W. L. Jumel.

discouraging that many people in England believed that the country after all would drift back to the crown.

It was nearly two years after peace was signed that the first American minister was officially received in England. You can understand why Great Britain and the new nation should hesitate about making advances. America did not know how she would be received, and it was natural that England should look upon her as a parent looks upon a rebellious child. But this state of things could not last. On the 24th of February, 1785, congress elected John Adams to the post of envoy to the Court of St. James. Adams at that time was in Paris, and he reached England in the month of May. On the 1st of June he was presented to George III. at St. James's Palace.

The sturdy American showed tact and good taste on the delicate occasion. He did not wish to give any address at all; but the master of ceremonies told him that it was usual, and would be expected. Adams could not decline. After assuring his majesty that it was the wish of the United States to cultivate the most friendly and liberal intercourse with his subjects, and expressing the best wishes of his country for his majesty's health, the American minister said:

"I think myself more fortunate than all my fellow-citizens, in having the distinguished honor to be the first to stand in your majesty's royal presence in a diplomatic character; and I shall esteem myself the happiest of men if I can be instrumental in recommending my country more and more to your majesty's royal benevolence, and of restoring an entire esteem, confidence and affection, or, in better words, the old good-nature and the old good-humor, between people who, though separated by an ocean, and under different governments, have the same language, a similar religion, and kindred blood. I beg your majesty's permission to add that, although I have sometimes before been intrusted by my country, it was never in my whole life in a manner so agreeable to myself."

"Sir," answered the king, "the circumstances of this audience are so extraordinary, the language you have now held is so extremely proper, and the feelings you have discovered are so justly adapted to the occasion, that I must say I not only receive with pleasure the assurance of the friendly dispositions of the United States, but that I am very glad that the choice has fallen upon you to be their minister. I wish you, sir, to believe, and that it may be understood in America, that I have done nothing in the late contest but what I thought myself indispensably bound to do by the duty which I owed to my people. I will be very frank with you. I was the last to consent to the separation; but the separation having been made, and having become inevitable, I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an independent power. The moment I see such sentiments and language as yours prevail, and a disposition to give to this country the preference, that moment I shall say, let the circumstances of language, religion and blood have their natural and full effect."

You would think from reading the words of these two great men that they were ready to embrace each other like brothers, but the language was that of diplomacy and there was no love between Great Britain and the United States. It was natural that there

should be none, for it takes a long time to heal such wounds as were made by the Revolution. King George may have felt some admiration for the American minister, whose words were so well-chosen, but he had no love for the rebels across the ocean. His courtiers and ministers were as cold as he, and the situation of Mr. Adams was any thing but pleasant. He saw that most of the English were glad because of the domestic troubles at home, and, as I have said, many believed that the states would ask before long to be again British dependencies. The long war with the Americans should have given the British a better knowledge of our ancestors.

Early in 1786 Adams thought he saw signs of a better feeling toward his country in the governing circles. He therefore wrote to Jefferson, the American minister to Paris, asking him to come to London. Jefferson did so, and these two able men agreed on a form of treaty with Great Britain. When they came to submit it, however, England would not accept it. Jefferson says that on their presentation to the king and queen he and Adams were scarcely noticed. The minister of foreign affairs was evasive, and showed that he did not care to have any thing to do with the Americans. At the end of several weeks, Jefferson concluded that he could be of no use in London and went back to his post in Paris. Of course nothing came of the treaty.

By this time America had a little commerce on the sea. Among her citizens were many that sent ships wherever there was a prospect of getting trade. Some of their vessels cruised in the Mediterranean, where ships belonging to England, France, Portugal, Spain, and the other leading European powers, were forced by the pirates of the Barbary States to pay tribute. It seems incredible that these powers would submit to this, but most of them were so anxious to make money that they were willing to pay the tribute rather than fight.

Of those that suffered in this respect the most angry was the United States. She had no patience with the lack of spirit shown by the others. Jefferson, while in Paris, tried to bring about an association or syndicate of nations for the purpose of ending the payment of tribute. His plan was to begin by severely chastising Algiers, then treat the others in turn in the same manner. Jefferson submitted at Paris his plans to the ministers of the chief powers, for them to propose to their respective governments. Some favored it and others were doubtful. The treaties made with the Barbary States actually recognized the right of these states to tribute, and for three centuries the corsairs of Northern Africa had plundered merchant vessels, and carried off Europeans into slavery. Spain had tried eleven years before to chastise the wild sea-rovers, but had failed ; and just before Jefferson moved in the matter, she had made a treaty with Algiers at an expense of three million dollars. As I have said, most of the ministers favored the plan, though distrust of the course of France and England was expressed. The scheme, however, fell through because the United States was unable to give it the necessary support. Congress was willing to join, but all its recommendations to the states to provide the means were unnoticed.

You will see from this incident the need of a general government with power to compel obedience to its laws. The poverty caused by the war led to bitter feeling on the part of the poor against the few that were rich. There was fear in many quarters

lest the leaders might seize for themselves an unfair share of power, or create hereditary honors.

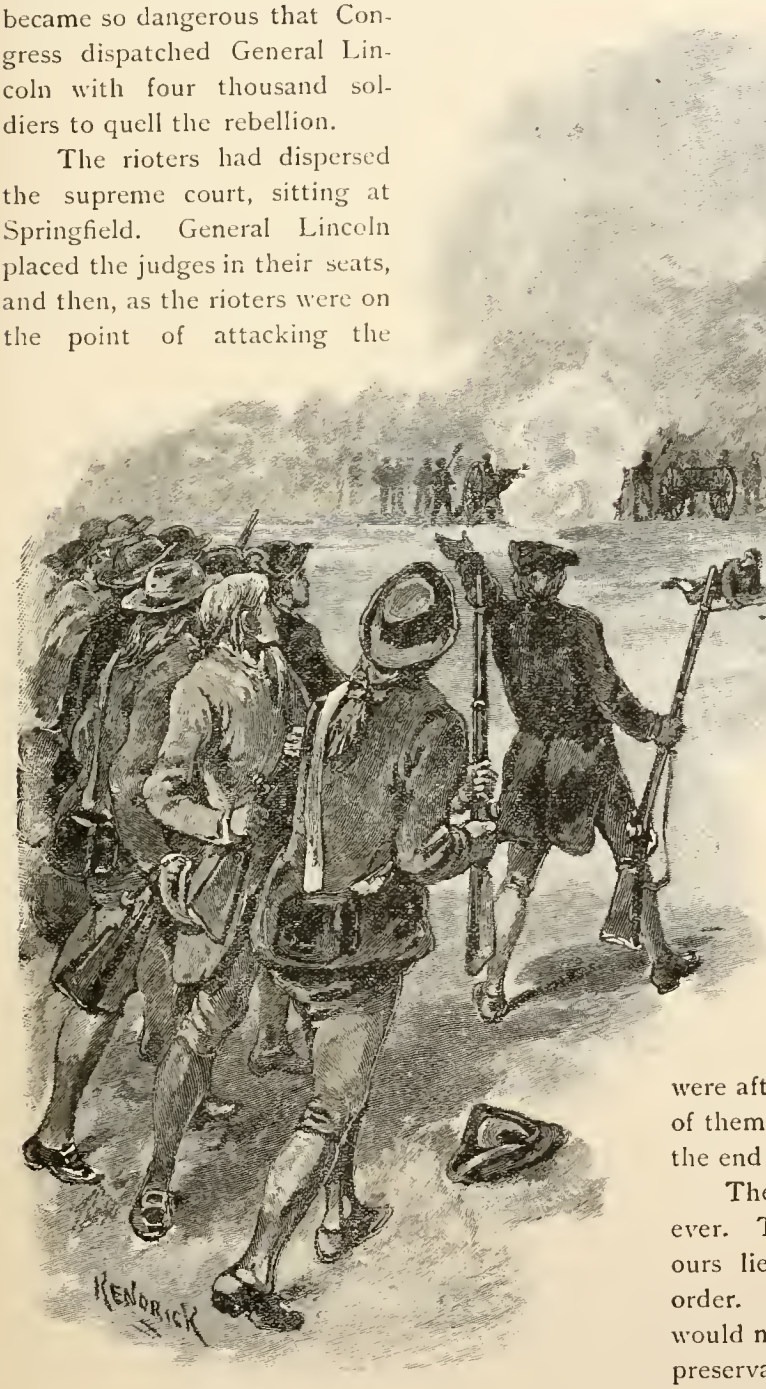
Your Humble Servant,
Horatio Gates

PORTRAIT AND AUTOGRAPH OF GENERAL GATES.

With such widespread discontent, and with such a lack of strength at the head of the government, there was sure to be rioting and disorder. In Massachusetts, Daniel Shays, formerly a captain in the Continental army, headed a mob of two thousand, who

demanded abolishment of taxes and a large issue of paper money for general use. They became so dangerous that Congress dispatched General Lincoln with four thousand soldiers to quell the rebellion.

The rioters had dispersed the supreme court, sitting at Springfield. General Lincoln placed the judges in their seats, and then, as the rioters were on the point of attacking the arsenal, he fired upon them. Nothing will scatter a mob like cold lead and artillery, and a single discharge was enough. The rioters fled and the rebellion was over. The leaders were afterward tried and fourteen of them sentenced to death, but in the end all were pardoned.



THE ATTACK ON THE RIOTERS.

The rebellion did good, however. The safety of a nation like ours lies in a love of law and order. It was now seen that it would not do to trifle longer: self preservation would not admit of delay.

No one saw the truth more clearly than Washington. Some citizens of Virginia and Maryland had formed a plan

for improving the navigation of the Potomac River and Chesapeake Bay, and the two states named commissioners to meet at Alexandria, Virginia, in March, 1785, to agree upon a plan of operations. It being known that Washington was interested in all such schemes, the commissioners made a visit to Mount Vernon. The talk naturally led to a discussion of the needs of the country itself. The final result was a proposition to the states for a general convention.

As a consequence, commissioners from Maryland, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey and New York met at Annapolis, in September, 1786. They discussed the question of tariff and other matters, but you will observe that only a minority of the states were represented, and the agents soon found that their powers were so slight that nothing effective could be done. A thorough reform of the existing government was necessary. The proposition was made that in May, 1787, each state should send delegates to Philadelphia. The necessity of this step was so plain that at the appointed time every state except Rhode Island was fully represented.

To show how clearly the needs of the country were seen by Washington, I quote from a letter he wrote in August, 1786: "We have errors to correct. We have probably had too good an opinion of human nature in forming our confederation. Experience has taught us that without the intervention of a coercive power, men will not adopt and carry into execution measures the best calculated for their own good. I do not conceive we can exist long as a nation without having lodged somewhere a power that will pervade the whole Union in as energetic a manner as the authority of the state governments extend over the several states. . . . I am told that even respectable characters speak of a monarchical form of government without horror. From thinking proceeds speaking; thence acting is often but a single step. But how irrevocable and tremendous! What a triumph for our enemies to verify their predictions! What a triumph for the advocates of despotism to find that we are incapable of governing ourselves, and that systems founded on the basis of equal liberty are merely ideal and fallacious!"

Washington was distressed by the news of the rioting in New England. "What stronger evidence can be given," said he, "of the want of energy in our government than these disorders? If there is not a power in it to check them, what security has a man for life, liberty or property? The consequences of a bad or inefficient government are too obvious to be dwelt upon. Thirteen sovereignties pulling against each other, and all tugging at the federal head, will soon bring ruin on the whole; whereas, a liberal and energetic constitution, well checked and well watched to prevent encroachments, might restore us to that degree of respectability and consequence to which we had the fairest prospect of attaining."

There was nothing strange in the fact that Washington was placed at the head of the Virginia delegation to Philadelphia. He accepted the honor very unwillingly, for he dreaded lest it should have a tendency to bring him back into public affairs. He had but a single ambition, to spend the rest of his life in domestic quiet with his family at Mount Vernon.

The convention met in Philadelphia, on the 14th of May, 1787, and adjourned from day to day until enough delegates arrived to allow them to organize. They did so on

the 25th of the month, and by a unanimous vote Washington was chosen president of the convention. It sat with closed doors for a period extending over four months. The members met in Independence Hall in the same room where the Declaration of Independence was signed, and where you can see to-day the chair in which Washington sat while acting as presiding officer.

There were able men in that convention. Among them were James Madison (afterward president of the United States), Dr. Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, Benjamin West, Edmund Randolph, Robert Morris, Gouverneur Morris, Gerry, Sherman, Clymer, Read and Dickinson. They spent several hours each day in dicussing principles of government.

Slowly but wisely the constitution was molded into shape. Randolph of Virginia submitted fifteen resolutions, which proposed a national legislature of two branches, a national judiciary with graded courts, and a national executive. Pinckney of South Carolina offered a similar but more elaborate plan, and both were fully considered. Finally the constitution was completed, and, on the 17th of September, 1787, was signed by all the delegates, except Gerry of Massachusetts and Randolph and Mason of Virginia. It was submitted to Congress, which in turn laid it before the separate states for their acceptance or rejection — the assent of nine being necessary before the constitution could become effective.

The debates that had taken place in secret in the convention were now repeated publicly in the different legislatures. At that early day, the germs of the political parties appeared. The main division was between those in favor of a large degree of federal power and those wishing to restrict that power. Those supporting the latter called themselves democrats, while the others were federalists. The constitution was really a compromise between these two great parties, though the federal view prevailed, in the main, over the democratic.

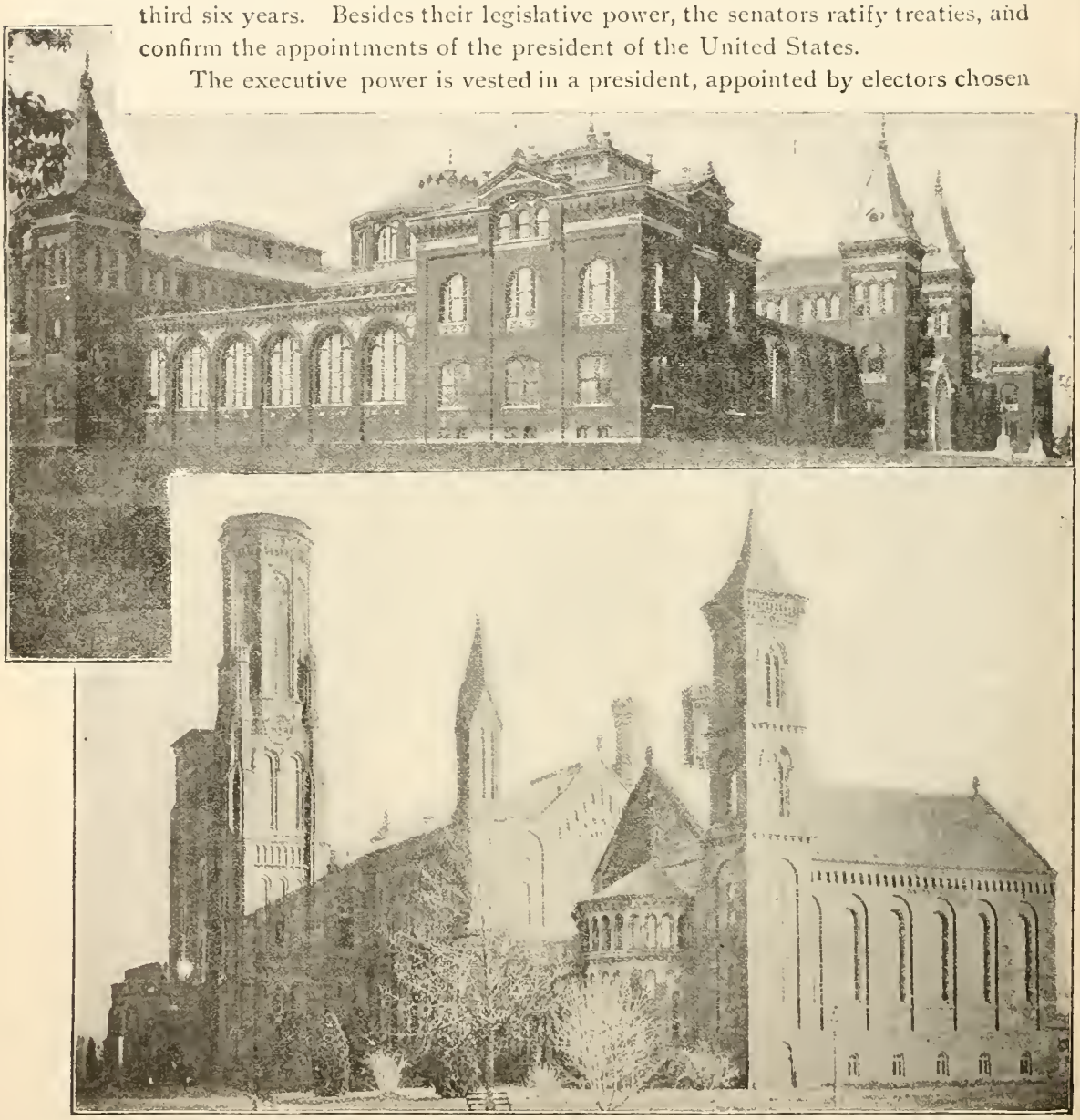
It was natural that much opposition to the new constitution should appear in the different legislatures, but one by one the states took their places in line. On the 21st of June, 1788, New Hampshire, the ninth state, ratified the constitution, and it became the supreme law of the land. Virginia followed four days later, and New York did the same a month after. Finally all had given their assent except Rhode Island and North Carolina.

As the constitution adopted by our forefathers in the closing years of the last century governs us to-day, and is likely to govern our country for ages to come, it is proper that you should learn, at this point, its leading features.

The government consists of three departments, legislative, executive and judicial. The legislative department consists of a Senate and House of Representatives, which together make the Congress. The members of the House of Representatives are chosen directly by the people, and hold their office two years. They are apportioned among the several states according to the number of inhabitants as found by a decennial census, excluding Indians not taxed and deducting two-fifths of the slaves. The senators represent the states in their sovereign capacity and are chosen for terms of six years by the state legislatures, each electing two. To prevent all going out at the same time, the first senators elected

were arranged in three classes—the first holding office two, the second four, and the third six years. Besides their legislative power, the senators ratify treaties, and confirm the appointments of the president of the United States.

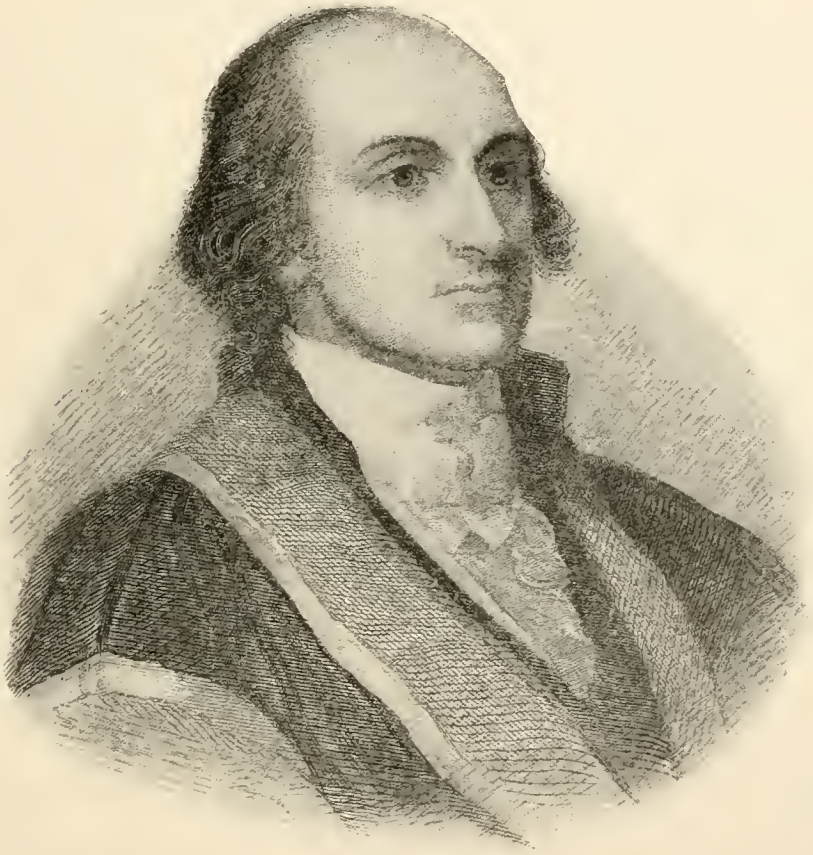
The executive power is vested in a president, appointed by electors chosen



(UPPER PICTURE)—NATIONAL MUSEUM, WASHINGTON, D. C.
(LOWER PICTURE)—SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

in the respective states, in such manner as the different legislatures prescribe. The electors are equal in number to the senators and representatives from the state. The president is elected for four years, but may be impeached by the House, tried by the Senate, and, if convicted of misconduct, removed from office. It is his duty to nominate to the Senate all officers of the general government, and, with the advice and consent of two thirds of that body, to ratify treaties.

A vice-president is chosen at the same time and in the same manner, to preside over the Senate, and to perform the duties of president, when that office shall become vacant by death, resignation, or removal. For the creation of any law, the House and Senate must concur, and the act is then sent to the president, who either approves it, or, in case of dis-



JOHN JAY.

approval, returns it with his objections. In the latter case (which is known as vetoing a bill), to become a law both houses are required to pass it over his veto.

Congress has power to declare war, to raise and support armies, to provide and maintain a navy, to levy and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to regulate commerce, to coin money, and to perform all other acts of a national character.

The judicial power of the United States is vested in a supreme court, and in such inferior courts as Congress may establish. It is to extend to all cases arising under the constitution, the laws of Congress, and treaties; to all cases of admiralty and maritime

jurisdiction; and to all controversies between citizens of different states and between foreigners and citizens. The judges hold office during good behavior.

Congress continued in session in New York, while the Philadelphia convention was engaged in preparing the federal constitution. During that period, it organized a territorial government for the vast region north-west of the Ohio, which formed part of the dominion of the United States. On the 11th of July a committee of Congress reported an ordinance for the admission of the territory.

The Indian titles to seventeen million acres of land in this territory had been lately extinguished by treaties with the leading tribes. A vast number of settlers swarmed into the fertile region called *The North-Western Territory*, from which have since been formed the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin.

One of the chief movers in this immigration was Rufus Putnam, from Massachusetts, who had served in the French and Indian War and in the Revolution. He went to Ohio in 1788, and with forty pioneers formed the settlement of Marietta, at the mouth of the Muskingum. During the same year fully twenty thousand men, women and children built their cabins in that section, though Daniel Boone and other pioneers had made their homes there still earlier.

Washington's Reception at Trenton

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FROM ORIGINAL DRAWING BY A. R. WAUD

WASHINGTON'S RECEPTION AT TRENTON

CHAPTER XIX.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATIONS. 1789–1797.

THE time had now come for the people of the United States to choose a president. There were many patriots, statesmen and soldiers, who were held in high regard by the nation, and the office itself was second in honor to none in the world. But there was one man whose lofty character and ability placed him above all others. Long before the choice of electors, the whole country had fixed upon that man: I need not tell you his name.

The meeting of the new government was called for the 4th of March, 1789, but some of the states were so slow in sending representatives that it was more than a month before a quorum of both houses arrived. When the votes for president and vice-president were counted it was found that every one had been cast for Washington.

John Adams, who had lately come back to the United States, received the next higher vote to that of Washington, and thus became vice-president.

Washington was not pleased with his new honor, but his patriotism was unselfish. A special messenger reached him on the 14th of April with the news of his election to the highest office in the gift of the people, and he left Mount Vernon two days later. Under that date, he wrote in his diary: "About ten o'clock I bade adieu to Mount Vernon, to private life, and to domestic felicity; and, with a mind oppressed with more anxious and painful sensations than I have words to express, set out for New York with the best disposition to render service to my country, in obedience to its call, but with less hope of answering its expectations."

The heart of Washington must have throbbed with pleasure when he saw how deeply his countrymen loved him. From the beginning to the end his journey was one continuous triumph. He had hardly left his own farm when he was met by a party of gentlemen from Alexandria, who escorted him to that town, where a public dinner was given by his neighbors and friends. The roads were lined with people, who cheered him to the echo as he rode between them. As soon as he was seen from the town, cannon began to boom, and all the bells were set ringing. Well might Virginia feel proud of the illustrious citizen she was sending to rule the nation.

Washington rode in his carriage attended by a large cavalcade of citizens to Baltimore, where he also received a salute of artillery. Crossing into Pennsylvania, he was met by the governor of the state, who was his old comrade in arms, General Mifflin, and by a civil and military escort. The president-elect wished to avoid all military parade, but the joyous people would not be denied. He entered Philadelphia like a conquering hero, which in fact, he was. The cavalry from the surrounding country was drawn up on

the outskirts of the city, and a superb white steed awaited his coming. Washington was a fine horseman, and when he mounted the animal and rode slowly under the triumphal arches of laurel, and between the thousands of shouting people, he was at his best. No wonder the people went wild with joy. Philadelphia took a general holiday, and the night was given to fireworks and rejoicing.

One sunny afternoon in early spring, he reached the ferry at Trenton. Thirteen years before, in the depth of winter, he had breasted the storm of snow and ice with his shivering army, while Colonel Rall and his Hessians held revel in the little town on the other side. Now, when he looked across, he saw the Jersey shore black with people waiting to give him welcome. The ferry was near where the present railway-bridge spans the Delaware.

Washington crossed, and passed on his white horse under an arch composed of laurels and hot-house flowers that had been put up at the Assunpink bridge. On the crown of the arch, in letters of leaves and blossoms, were the words, "December 26, 1776," while on the space beneath was painted the sentence, "The Defender of the Mothers will be the Protector of the Daughters." As the hero rode under the arch, a party of beautiful girls dressed in white and crowned with garlands scattered flowers before him and sang a song of welcome. Washington was deeply touched with the sight, and often referred to it in after years. The wooden arch used on that occasion is still preserved in Trenton. I have often seen it, and hope that it will be taken care of for a long time to come.

The enthusiasm of his reception increased as he neared New York. At Elizabethport a committee of Congress and a number of civil officers awaited him. On a handsome barge manned by thirteen pilots, masters of vessels, he started for the city, attended by other decorated barges, having on board the heads of departments and various public officers, while numerous private boats swept up the bay of New York to the sound of inspiriting music. The ships lying at anchor in the harbor fired salutes as Washington's barge drew near. Some surprise was felt that, amid this uproar, a Spanish man-of-war remained quiet. All at once the frigate broke forth into a thunder of guns, the yards were manned, while flags and signals were run aloft. The eyes of Washington kindled when he saw all these proofs of love and respect.

Amid the ringing of bells and the booming of artillery, the great man was rowed to the landing-place of Murray's wharf, where he was received by Governor Clinton, standing among a large number of soldiers of the Revolution. The commander of the guard approached Washington, saluted and asked for his orders. He told him to follow his own arrangements, adding that for the future the only guard he wanted was the affection of his fellow-citizens.

Washington declined to ride in the carriage provided for him, but walked through the streets, escorted by a long civil and military train. Every window along the route was crowded with heads, and the people were so packed and wedged together on the sidewalks that it was hardly possible for any one to force his way through. Silken banners fluttered in the breeze; flowers were flung in showers before him, while garlands of flowers and masses of evergreens were wrought into beautiful designs, many of them showing the letters of his name.

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THE INSTALLATION OF WASHINGTON. (*See page 202.*)

Drawn by Francis Christy.

Washington, strange to say, was always distrustful of himself, as is often the case with persons that are highly conscientious. It must be admitted, too, that he understood the nature of his countrymen, who make a man a hero to-day and denounce him to-morrow — who cheer to-morrow the one they denounced to-day ; but you can see that his great mistake was in distrusting his own merits and in forgetting that, changeable and excitable as were his countrymen, they would bear far more from him than from any other living person.

The president-elect reached New York on the 23d of April, but the inauguration did not take place until a week later. You see, there were a great many things to be arranged. Washington was the first president, and every thing of that nature was new.

On the morning of April 30th, religious services were held in all the churches. At noon, the city troops paraded before Washington's door, and in a short time the committees of Congress and heads of departments arrived in their carriages. A procession with the troops in front marched to the old city hall, which stood on the site of the present custom house. Washington rode in a state-coach and the chief officials in their own carriages. Behind them came the foreign ministers and a long train of citizens, the windows and sidewalks being crowded as they were the week before.

When close to the city hall, Washington and his suite stepped from their carriages, and, walking between two lines of troops, entered the Senate Chamber, where the vice-president, the Senate and the members of the House of Representatives were gathered. John Adams, as vice-president, conducted the president to a chair-of-state at the upper end of the room. After a brief, solemn hush, the vice-president rose and said to the president, that every thing was ready for him to take the oath of office.

It had been arranged that this should be administered by Robert R. Livingston, the chancellor of the state of New York, in a balcony of the Senate Chamber, where they would be in full view of the thousands gathered on the outside. The balcony formed an open recess in front of the house, with high columns upholding the roof. In the center was a table covered with crimson velvet, on which lay a cushion supporting the Bible.

Washington stepped forth, accompanied by various public officers and members of Congress. He was clad in a full suit of dark brown cloth, of American manufacture, with a steel-hilted dress sword, white silk stockings, and silver shoe-buckles ; his hair was dressed and powdered in the fashion of the day, and worn in a bag and solitaire.

The moment the multitude caught sight of the illustrious man, they broke into cheers that lasted several minutes. His self-command was great, but every one in the crowd saw that Washington had hard work to control his agitation. Placing his hand on his heart, he bowed low several times, and then took his seat in an arm chair near the table. A profound stillness fell on the populace, when, rising, Washington again advanced, supported on the right by John Adams, and on the left by Chancellor Livingston, while just behind were a number of his old friends and comrades in arms. Mr. Otis, secretary of the Senate, held the crimson cushion with the Bible on top, while the chancellor in a distinct voice read the oath, in these words, " I do solemnly swear that I will faithfully execute the office of the president of the United States and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States."

While the chancellor was repeating the words, Washington stood with his hand resting on the open Bible, and his eyes fixed on the face of the chancellor. At the conclusion of the oath, the president said in a clear voice, "I swear—so help me God!" Before Mr. Otis could raise the Bible, Washington leaned over and reverently kissed it. The chancellor turned his face toward the crowd, and taking one step forward, shouted:

"Long live George Washington, President of the United States!"

How the cry echoed and swelled! Hats were flung aloft, shouts filled the air, tears of joy moistened many an eye, while for a minute or two, every thing was confusion. Amid it all, a flag was seen to run up like a crimson flame above the cupola of the hall; thirteen cannon at the battery thundered, and all the bells in the city rang out as if striving to out-do each other in the general rejoicing.

Washington bowed again and again to the spectators, until the tumult was partly over. Then he passed into the Senate Chamber, where, in the presence of both houses, he pronounced his inaugural speech. He had not yet recovered from his agitation. His voice trembled, and was so low as to be heard only by those in the front part of the room.

Addressing the members as "Fellow citizens, of the Senate and House of Representatives," he confessed his distrust of himself and offered a prayer for guidance in the mighty and untried cares before him. Among other things, he said, "No truth is more thoroughly established than that there exists an indissoluble union between virtue and happiness; between duty and advantage; between the genuine maxims of an honest and magnanimous people, and the solid rewards of public prosperity and felicity; and that the propitious smiles of heaven could never be expected on a nation that disregarded the eternal rules of order and right, which heaven itself has ordained." Just as when commander-in-chief of the army, he now declined all personal payment, so long as he should hold the office, and ended his address by once more praying that the divine blessing might be conspicuous in the enlarged views, the temperate consultations, and the wise measures, on which the success of the government must depend.

The assemblage now walked to St. Paul's Church, where prayers were read by Bishop Provost, who had been appointed by the Senate one of the chaplains of Congress. The city was illuminated and fire-works set off in the evening.

The pomp and ceremony over, the serious business began. At the opening of his administration, Washington was prostrated by sickness, and no important business was done until September. On the 10th of that month, Congress passed an act creating a department of foreign affairs, a treasury department, and a department of war. To the first, Washington nominated Thomas Jefferson; to the second, Alexander Hamilton; and to the third, General Henry Knox. No better appointments could have been made.

The most pressing question was that of finance, and Hamilton grappled it with masterly skill. A few days after receiving his commission, Congress called on him for some plan to provide for the public debt and to preserve the national credit, or rather to revive it, for it was about dead. The debt of the confederation and the states amounted almost to eighty million dollars. Hamilton took a broad and honest policy. His plan,

as laid before Congress, was, that the debts of the United States due to American citizens, as well as the war-debt of the individual states, should be assumed by the general government and that every dollar should be paid. This measure greatly improved the public credit, before any provision was made for the payment. To do this, he proposed to fund the entire debt, issuing new certificates. His plan was bitterly opposed, and had he not brought great skill into play, that part providing for the assumption of the state debts by the general government would have been defeated. The discussions in

COINS STRUCK IN THE UNITED STATES, 1793–5.

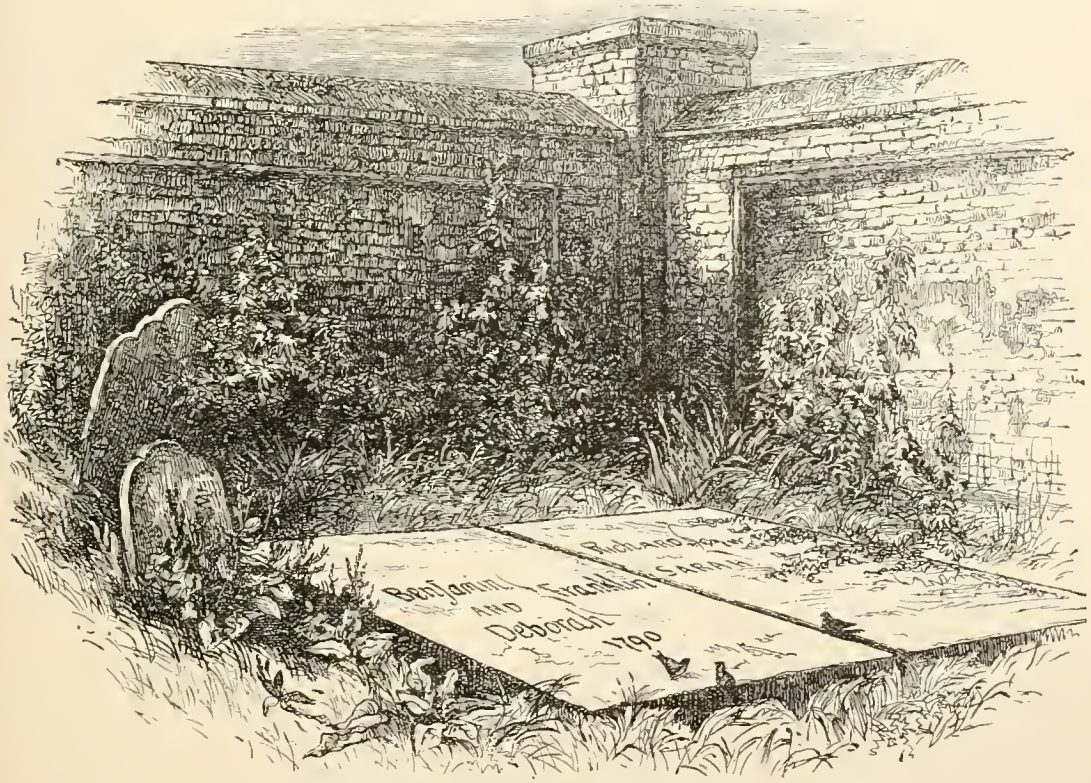
Congress drew the lines sharply between the federalists and anti-federalists or republicans.

There were two states that had not yet adopted the constitution. It was not necessary that they should do so, but on the other hand there was no reason why they should refuse. North Carolina called a convention, and on the 13th of November, 1789, the constitution was formally adopted. Rhode Island, the smallest state of all, made the greatest trouble. For a long time, she would not be satisfied, but when Providence and Newport withdrew from the state, and Massachusetts and Connecticut began to arrange for dividing the sulky little state between them, she came to her senses, and the constitution was adopted May 29, 1790.

Washington, as I have told you, selected three of the ablest men in the country for his cabinet advisers, but the counselors themselves were much opposed in their views.

Hamilton and Jefferson, especially, were at swords' points in their opinions, and neither had much charity for those who did not agree with him. You can see, therefore, that the meetings of the cabinet were not by any means harmonious. It was difficult, sometimes, for Washington to restrain the disputants. Jefferson favored more and more every year the doctrine of state rights, as it is called, while Hamilton was devoted to the president and to the strengthening of his power.

In 1791, Hamilton gave another proof of his influence, by carrying through Con-



FRANKLIN'S GRAVE AT PHILADELPHIA.

gress, in the face of the fiercest opposition, a measure to aid the government in its financial straits. At that time, there were only three banks in the country — one each in New York, Boston and Philadelphia. These were state institutions. Hamilton urged the establishment of a bank, in which the government should be one-fifth owner of the capital stock of ten million dollars, and a preferred borrower to the same amount. The bank was to be under private management. Its formation was strongly resisted, but, nevertheless, the act passed that created it: it was chartered for twenty years. The subscriptions required that one-fourth of the stock should be paid in gold or silver coin, and the rest in six per cent. certificates of the bank. The entire number of shares was taken up in two hours.

Hamilton had provided means for funding the debt and borrowing money, but the urgent need that faced him was to provide some way of earning the money. Such need

was so clear that one of the first acts of Congress was to pass a tariff bill. When in 1791 Hamilton made his great report to Congress, he favored a protective tariff, and recommended that the materials from which goods are made should not be taxed. He advised that articles that competed with those manufactured in this country should be prohibited. There were also many other features, all of which were embodied in a bill that was passed February 9, 1792. A law had also been made placing a duty upon imported and domestic spirits.

A mint was established for coining money. As the pieces struck are very scarce today, we will show you how they looked. [See page 204.]

During the first session of Congress, the Senate gave much attention to the question of a federal judiciary. The plan proposed by Ellsworth of Connecticut was finally embodied in a bill, which, after several amendments, passed both houses. It created a national judiciary, consisting of a supreme court, having a chief justice and five associate justices, who were to hold two sessions annually at the seat of the federal government. To circuit and district courts were given jurisdiction over certain specified cases. Each state was made a district ; the territories of Maine and Kentucky were provided for in the same manner, while the rest of the territories were grouped together in three circuits. In all civil cases, when the matter in dispute amounted to two thousand dollars, an appeal as to points of law was allowed from these lower courts to the supreme court. The president was to appoint a marshal for each district, who was invested with the general powers of a sheriff. The interests of the federal government were to be represented by a district-attorney, who was to act for the United States whenever it was necessary.

John Jay, of New York, was appointed chief-justice, and Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, was made attorney-general. The associate judges were John Rutledge, of South Carolina ; James Wilson, of Pennsylvania ; William Cushing, of Massachusetts ; Robert H. Harrison, of Maryland ; and John Blair, of Virginia.

There were some questions which, at the beginning of Washington's administration, vexed him a great deal, but which would hardly occur to you. Being president, he felt there ought to be some rule as to how often he should appear in public, in what manner such appearance should be made, what entertainments he should give, who should be invited, and, last of all, the title by which he should be addressed as the highest officer in the land. He had no desire to introduce the formalities of the European courts, nor, on the other hand, did he wish to make the office ridiculous by throwing aside all ceremony. He begged Adams, Jefferson, Hamilton, and others to help him out of his dilemma.

Adams thought there ought to be much ceremony ; Jefferson, none at all. The latter said, " I hope that the terms Excellency, Honor, Worship, Esquire, and even Mr., shall shortly forever disappear from among us." Hamilton favored a simple and moderate formality, and Washington adopted his views. Meanwhile, Congress had declared that the chief magistrate should have no other title than that of his office ; namely, President of the United States.

You have been told in another place of the trouble that Vermont caused by her desire to be admitted into the Union. Her wish was gratified on the 4th of March, 1791,

when she became the fourteenth state. An act admitting Kentucky was passed before this time, but did not take effect until June 1, 1792. Just two years later, Tennessee became a state — these three being all that were added during the administration of Washington.

You learned long ago about Benjamin Franklin, one of the greatest men ever born in this country. He died in Philadelphia on the 17th of April, 1790, at the age of eighty-four years. It is estimated that fully twenty thousand people attended his funeral. It was said of him by a celebrated French author, "He wrested the thunderbolt from the heavens, and the scepter from the hands of tyrants."

During those days, when people in the north spoke of the great west, they meant the western frontier of New York state; but emigrants were swarming beyond the Alleghanies and settling in the fertile Ohio valley. Most of these went from New England, while Kentucky drew new settlers mainly from Virginia, and Tennessee from North Carolina. Some of the British frontier posts, which should have been given up in 1783, were still held by the English, who told the Indians that the Americans had no right to settle on their hunting grounds, and urged them to violence. There was no need to do that, for they were ready at all times to appeal to the rifle and tomahawk. They lay in wait along the river banks, and attacked the boats on the Ohio; assailed the block-houses; assaulted the pioneers met with in the woods; and were sometimes strong enough to besiege the fortified settlements. Although the tide of emigration was never turned back, and scarcely checked, the cruelties of the Indians were such that self-protection called for their punishment.

The Creeks, also, under their chief of white descent, desolated the remote parts of Georgia. They seemed to have some support from Spain. Attempts made to bring about a peace with them failed, until 1790, when Gilivray, their ruler, was persuaded to sign, at New York, a treaty satisfactory to the whites. Similar efforts were made with the Indians beyond the Ohio, but without avail. There is good authority for believing that between the years 1783 and 1790 fifteen hundred persons were killed or taken captives by the Indians near the Ohio. Convinced, at last, that peace could be brought about only by a chastisement of the savages, Congress gave General Arthur St. Clair, governor of the North-western Territory, authority to call for five hundred militiamen from Pennsylvania, and a thousand from Kentucky, to which was added a regiment of four hundred regulars. This force was placed under General Harmar, who was sent on a campaign against the leading Indian villages.

In October, he went up the valley of the Little Miami, but found the villages at the head of that stream deserted. He burned them, girdled the fruit trees, and destroyed the crops. He then marched westward, crossed the Great Miami at Piqua, and continuing north-westerly thirty miles, came to a halt. The principal village was still fifty miles away, and Colonel Hardin was sent with six hundred men to surprise it. The Indians, however, had their scouts on the watch, and that too was found deserted. Colonel Hardin went into camp and awaited the arrival of the main body. His camp was near the present city of Fort Wayne, Indiana.

On the 20th of October, Colonel Hardin was sent with one hundred and fifty volunteers and thirty regulars to destroy a town six miles southward on the St. Mary's. They

were drawn to ambush and the militia fled. The regulars fought until all were killed except two officers and two privates who escaped into a swamp.

General Harmar decided to return to Fort Washington (where Cincinnati now stands), but had scarcely started, when he learned that the Indians had returned to their village. Colonel Hardin begged to be allowed to go back and wipe out the disgrace of his defeat. Permission was given, and he returned with six hundred militia and sixty regulars. He placed his men well and fought vigorously, but was again outgeneraled by the red men. They pretended they were beaten, and fled up the St. Joseph, followed for two miles by the militia. A large number, however, who hid themselves, fell upon the regulars with such ferocity that all but eight were killed. The militia, unable to overtake the fleeing warriors, came back, and were harassed by a continual fire from both banks. The soldiers reached Fort Washington with a loss of more than two hundred in killed and wounded, while that of the Indians was less than one-fourth that number. For this unfortunate campaign, General Harmar was court-martialed, but acquitted.

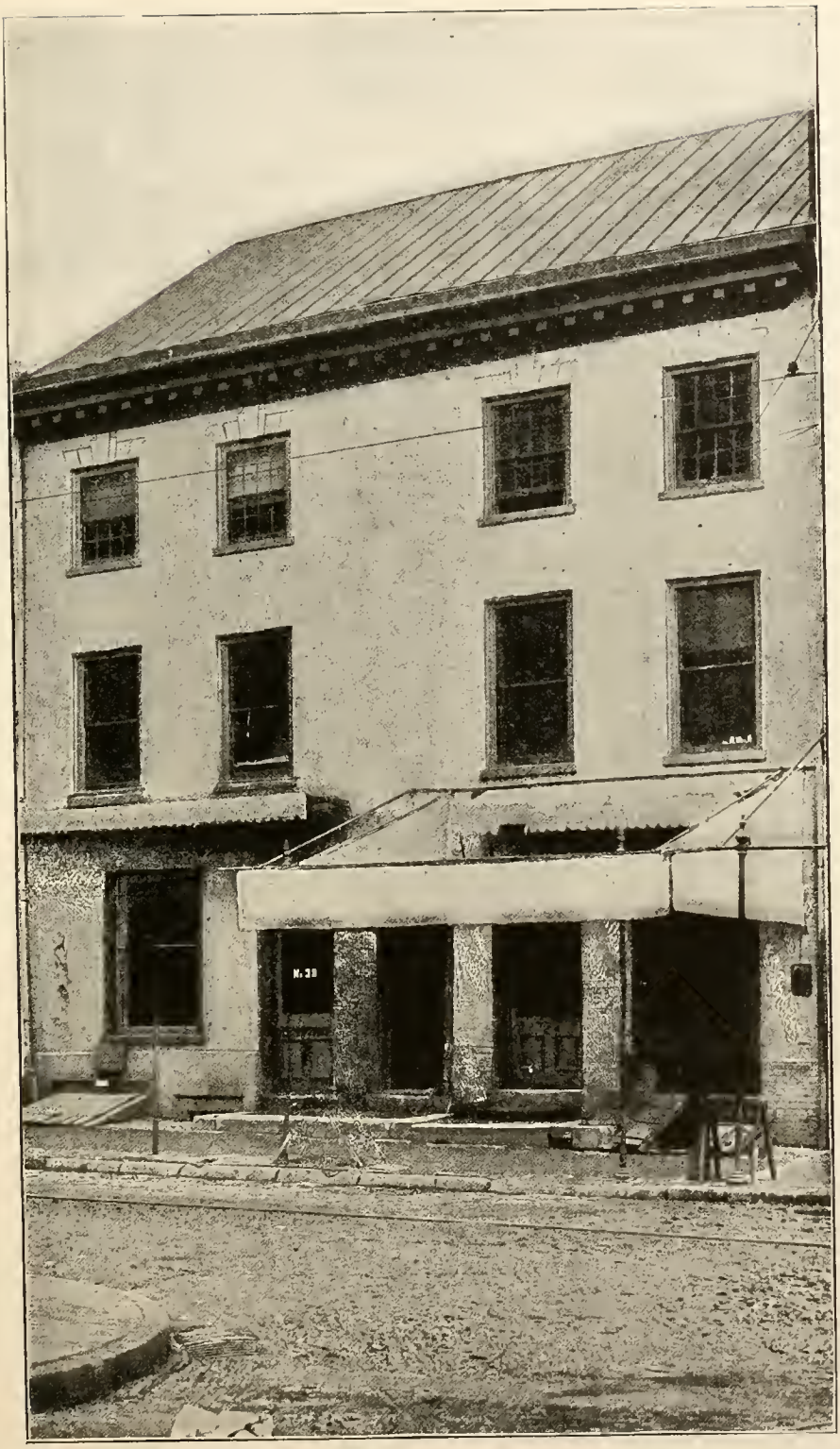
Such failures encouraged the Indians and they became more daring than ever. The following spring, General Charles Scott of Kentucky crossed the Ohio at the mouth of the Kentucky, with a brigade of mounted riflemen, burned several Indian villages on the Wabash and Eel Rivers, destroyed the corn-fields, and took back fifty-eight prisoners, without having lost a man. During the summer, Colonel Wilkinson led a similar successful force against the villages on the northern tributaries of the Wabash.

Such expeditions were of themselves unable to compel the submission of the Indians. General St. Clair, therefore, organized a force of two thousand men with cavalry and artillery, with which he left Fort Washington on the 3d of October, 1791, and advanced twenty miles to Fort Hamilton on the Miami. Thence he marched north, building Fort St. Clair and Fort Jefferson by the way. The detachments from his army, and the desertions, had reduced his force to fourteen hundred men.

On the night of November 3d, St. Clair reached a point nearly a hundred miles north of Fort Washington, and encamped on one of the upper tributaries of the Wabash, in what is now the south-west angle of Mercer County, Ohio. On the following morning at sunrise, just after the troops were dismissed from parade, the Indians fell upon them. They were under the leadership of Michiniqua or Little Turtle, Blue Jacket and the notorious white renegade, Simon Girty. The front rank of the American forces was made up of raw recruits, who, at the first shock, fell back in such a panic that the rest were thrown into confusion. They quickly rallied, however, but St. Clair himself was too ill to take command in person, and, seeing at the end of three or four hours that it was useless to fight longer, he called back his men and ordered a retreat.

An orderly withdrawal, under such circumstances, was impossible, and it soon became a rout, in which the fugitives were cut down without mercy. The Indians chased them for hours, until tired of the butchery, they came back to plunder the deserted camp and scalp the dead. Four days later, General St. Clair reached Fort Washington, having lost fully one-half his men, many of whom were tortured to death at the stake. The expedition was a most lamentable disaster.

There was consternation in Philadelphia when the news reached that city. General



FIRST UNITED STATES MINT, 37 AND 39 NORTH SEVENTH STREET, PHILADELPHIA.

Washington was so indignant that he could not restrain himself. "*Here*," he exclaimed, "in this very room, I took leave of General St. Clair. I wished him success and honor. I said to him: 'You have careful instructions from the secretary of war, and I have only a word to add—*beware of a surprise!* You know how the Indians fight us. BEWARE OF A SURPRISE!' He went off with my warning ringing in his ears. And yet he has allowed that army to be cut to pieces by a surprise—the very thing I cautioned him against! How will he answer to his country? The blood of the slain is upon him—the curse of widows and orphans!"

Washington seemed afterward to regret his wrathful outburst, and declared that General St. Clair should be received without displeasure, and should have full justice.

A committee of Congress acquitted St. Clair, but he was so overwhelmed with public censure that he resigned his command, and was succeeded by General Anthony Wayne, who, you remember, was called Mad Anthony. He was made a major-general in 1792, and given command in the West, with power to raise three more regiments of infantry, and two thousand dragoons for a term of three years. He began to collect troops at Fort Washington early in 1793, but recruiting was so slow that it was not until September that he set out on his advance. Going northward about eighty miles, he built Fort Greenville and went into winter quarters. It may seem that he moved slowly, but he was simply cautious, intending to make no mistake.

The Indians along the Maumee were on the watch all through the winter, and, whenever they saw a chance, attacked the Americans. Numerous skirmishes took place, in which little advantage was gained on either side. The red men, seeing that a decisive battle must take place, kept gathering their warriors. Quotas were sent thither from all the leading tribes within many miles. Governor Simcoe marched from Detroit with a detachment of British troops, and built a British post at the rapids of the Maumee. In some of the collisions with the Indians, the Americans saw British officers encouraging the savages.

In the month of July, Wayne received a re-enforcement of sixteen hundred mounted Kentuckians under the dashing General Charles Scott. This raised the army to about four thousand, and Wayne started for the Indian towns on the Auglaize. He took every possible precaution to guard against surprise while on the march. He always went into camp about the middle of the afternoon, in a hollow square, which was inclosed by a rampart of logs. Wayne had received the minutest instructions from Washington, and did not forget one of them.

On the 2d of August he reached the St. Mary's, where he erected Fort Adams and left a garrison. He then crossed the Auglaize and marched down that stream through deserted villages and fields to its junction with the Maumee, where he erected Fort Defiance. Passing down the Maumee to the head of the rapids, he built Fort Deposit. With his splendid force of two thousand regulars and eleven hundred mounted riflemen, he marched on the morning of August 20th, against the Indians and Canadians, who expected to defeat him with the same ease that they had destroyed the previous expeditions sent into their country.

Wayne advanced in three columns. The Indians and Canadians were formed in

three lines, their left resting on the river, and their right extending to a thicket two miles away. The American cavalry set out to turn their flanks, while the infantry charged with trailed arms against the center. Nothing could surpass the impetuosity of the Americans, who carried every thing before them, and drove the terrified enemy for shelter to the British Fort Maumee, several miles distant. Great loss was inflicted on them, while that of the Americans was only forty-four killed, and about a hundred wounded. The confederation of Indians was overthrown, and their punishment was so severe that they did not recover from it for a score of years. The Indian country was laid waste by Wayne on his return, and his name became such a terror to the savages that their British friends could never overcome their fear of him.

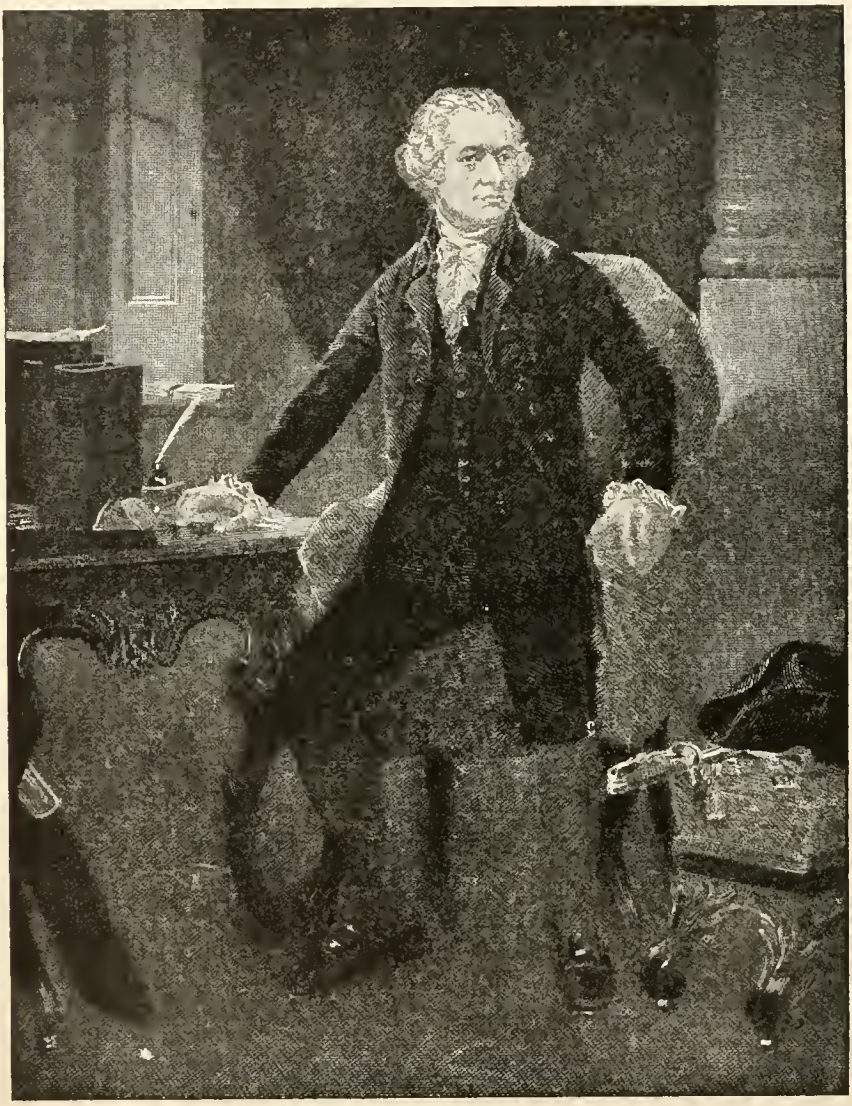
On the 3d of August, 1795, eleven hundred chiefs and warriors met the United Commissioners at Fort Greenville, where a treaty of peace was signed, by which they ceded to the government a large tract of land lying in the present states of Michigan and Indiana. As a consequence, western emigration increased and was scarcely interrupted for many years.

Wayne's great victory over the Indians is known as the battle of Fallen Timber. Just ninety-one years later, that is August 20, 1885, a concourse of over five thousand people from Michigan Indiana and Ohio met on the site of the battle ground to celebrate the triumph of General Wayne. It was decided that a monument should be built on the spot where the famous chief Turkey Foot was shot. This place is known by a large gray rock, on the top of which have been rudely cut by the tomahawks of his braves large tracks of turkey feet, to represent the name of their chief.

Secretary Hamilton succeeded in getting through Congress a bill doubling the duty on imported spirits, and taxing spirits distilled in this country. This caused much dissatisfaction, especially in North Carolina and western Pennsylvania. The law was modified, but that did not end the trouble. The officers sent by Congress to enforce the regulations in the western districts of Pennsylvania were resisted, and threatened with violence. The insurrection spread rapidly; buildings were burned, and mails robbed, about seven thousand rioters being under arms. The local militia sympathized with the mob, as is often the case, some of them openly joining the rioters. The rebellion would have spread further, had not President Washington sent a large body of the militia of Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania and New Jersey into the district. They appeared on the ground in October, under the command of General Richard Henry Lee, Governor of Virginia, and soon restored order. The ringleaders were afterward tried and found guilty of treason, but upon expressing sorrow for their crimes were pardoned.

I must tell you about the visit of Edward Charles Genet to this country. The French Revolution, one of the bloodiest wars in history, broke out during the administration of Washington. The king, Louis XVI., was beheaded, and dreadful scenes of violence took place in the streets of Paris. When the revolutionists were able to form something like a government, they sent Genet as their minister to the United States. He landed at Charleston, South Carolina, in April, 1793, and was warmly welcomed. Instead of hastening to Philadelphia to present his credentials, he stayed for a long time in the South. Of course he was an ardent republican (as they were called in his own

country) and the chief object of his coming to this country was to gain our help in advancing French republican designs. France was at war with England, Austria, Prussia, Sardinia and Holland, and it would have aided her greatly could she have made an alliance with the United States.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON

While "Citizen Genet," as his brother revolutionists called him, lingered in the South, the government discussed the manner in which his country should be treated. Hamilton and Knox thought the democratic government of France should be openly frowned upon by a refusal to receive its minister, or by giving him the least cordial reception possible. Jefferson and Randolph took the opposite view, insisting that the United

States had no right to criticise the internal government of a country with which she was on terms of friendship. We must all agree that the latter view was the true one.

It was decided, however, that, in order to preserve neutrality, a proclamation should be issued, forbidding the citizens of the United States to equip vessels to carry on hostilities against any of the belligerent powers. This was done April 22, 1793.

GROUP OF FRONTIER INDIANS.

Despite the proclamation of the president, Genet spent six weeks in Charleston, fitting out cruisers to prey upon English commerce. He even sanctioned the capture of British vessels in American waters by French cruisers. These prizes were taken into American ports, and sold by authority of the French consuls. All this was done too,

before Genet was recognized as the minister of France. He was very popular in America, notwithstanding his insulting course toward the authorities in this country. When he started northward, crowds flocked to see him, and he received an ovation on reaching Philadelphia.

Jefferson, although a warm friend of France, was greatly incensed by Genet's proceedings. On the 7th of July, he told him he had learned that a certain vessel had received extra guns, and was about ready to sail on a privateering expedition. When Genet was asked to detain the vessel, he refused to do so. He charged the American government with violating its treaties with France, with allowing the French flag to be insulted by the English, and with showing the grossest favoritism toward the country that had tried so hard to enslave America. He attempted to explain the law to Jefferson, claiming that the president should have acted differently, and threatened to command Washington to convene Congress.

The course of Genet finally became intolerable, and Washington ordered our minister at Paris to demand his recall. This demand was complied with, and Genet's services as minister were dispensed with. He did not go home, however, but married a daughter of Governor Clinton of New York, and stayed in this country until his death in 1834.

The new government had great difficulty to maintain neutrality, England being as troublesome as France. I have told you that England felt sullen toward us, even though her king had given such warm welcome to John Adams, the first minister sent to him. In the month of November, 1793, the king issued secret instructions to British privateers to seize all neutral vessels that might be found trading in the French West Indies. The United States received no notice of such a high-handed measure, and it was not long, therefore, before millions of dollars worth of property was swept away by a system that was neither more nor less than piracy.

Such acts angered the Americans, but through the wisdom of the government, another war with Great Britain was averted. The course of England was so unjust that in May, 1794, Chief-Justice Jay was sent as envoy extraordinary to demand redress of the English government. He found the British minister for foreign affairs as desirous as he to settle the differences. In November they agreed upon a treaty, which was ratified by the Senate in June, 1795, and went into operation in the following February.

By the provisions of this treaty, the British garrisons were to be withdrawn from the western posts by June 1, 1796; free inland navigation upon lakes and rivers was guaranteed to both nations, except that the United States was shut out from the territory of the Hudson Bay Company; British vessels were to be admitted to the rivers and harbors on the sea coast of the United States, but the shipping of the latter was excluded from the rivers and harbors of the British provinces, except in the case of small vessels trading between Montreal and Quebec; a commission was to fix our north-eastern boundary; the United States was to guarantee to British creditors the payment of debts incurred before the war, provided they were such debts as would be collectible by an American creditor; Great Britain was to pay for losses from irregular captures by British cruisers; citizens of either country were to be allowed to hold landed property in the

territory of the other; no private property was to be confiscated in case of war; trade between the United States and the West India Islands could be carried on by both American and English vessels, but our vessels were forbidden to take West Indian products from the islands or from the states to any other part of the world. This clause of the treaty was to be in force only two years, when further negotiation was provided for. The other articles, which were to be effective only two years, provided that American vessels might trade between the East Indies and the United States, but in time of war must not take thither any rice or military or naval stores; established freedom of commerce between the British dominions in Europe, and the United States; provided for the regulation of duties, the appointment of consuls, and the rules of blockade; regulated privateering; defined what was contraband of war, and agreed to punish piracy; ships of war were to be received in the ports of either country; in the event of war between Great Britain and the United States, citizens of either in the other's territory were not to be disturbed; and criminals escaping from one country to the other were to be delivered up.

By a glance over the main provisions of this treaty, you can see that its terms were much more favorable to Great Britain than to the United States. There were many Americans who said that the treaty was made only to avoid a war with England. Indeed, the anger deepened all over the country. Immense public meetings were held in Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Charleston and other cities; those who dared to defend the treaty were threatened with personal violence; Hamilton was assaulted at a public meeting; the British minister at Philadelphia was insulted, and Jay was burned in effigy. Even President Washington was shown disrespect, in some instances. The democrats made the most opposition, declaring that the treaty was not only the basest ingratitude to France, but was nothing short of treason to America, and that eternal hatred should be held to England and to all forms of monarchy. By and by a re-action set in, and, as I have already said, the treaty was ratified by the Senate, and thus the impending war with England was prevented.

Although the two great leaders, Hamilton and Jefferson, were widely opposed in their views, and were continually disputing over political subjects, they were agreed in insisting upon Washington's re-election to the presidency. He preferred to retire, but Jefferson threatened to resign if he did so, and, actuated as the good man always was by his love for his country, he consented to stand for re-election. There was no competitor against him, and in the autumn of 1792, he was chosen for a second term to begin in the following March. Adams was also re-elected vice-president, though he had an opponent in George Clinton of New York.

On December 31, 1793, Jefferson resigned his office as secretary of foreign affairs, and retired to private life at his home at Monticello, Virginia. About a year later, Hamilton resigned as the minister of finance. Before leaving Philadelphia, Hamilton issued a report on the finances of the United States, explaining in full his plans. He was a man of remarkable powers. Jefferson said that he was a colossus to his party and a host in himself. He was strong alike in debate and in administration. The results of Hamilton's policy were the restoration of public credit, and the revival of trade and industry.

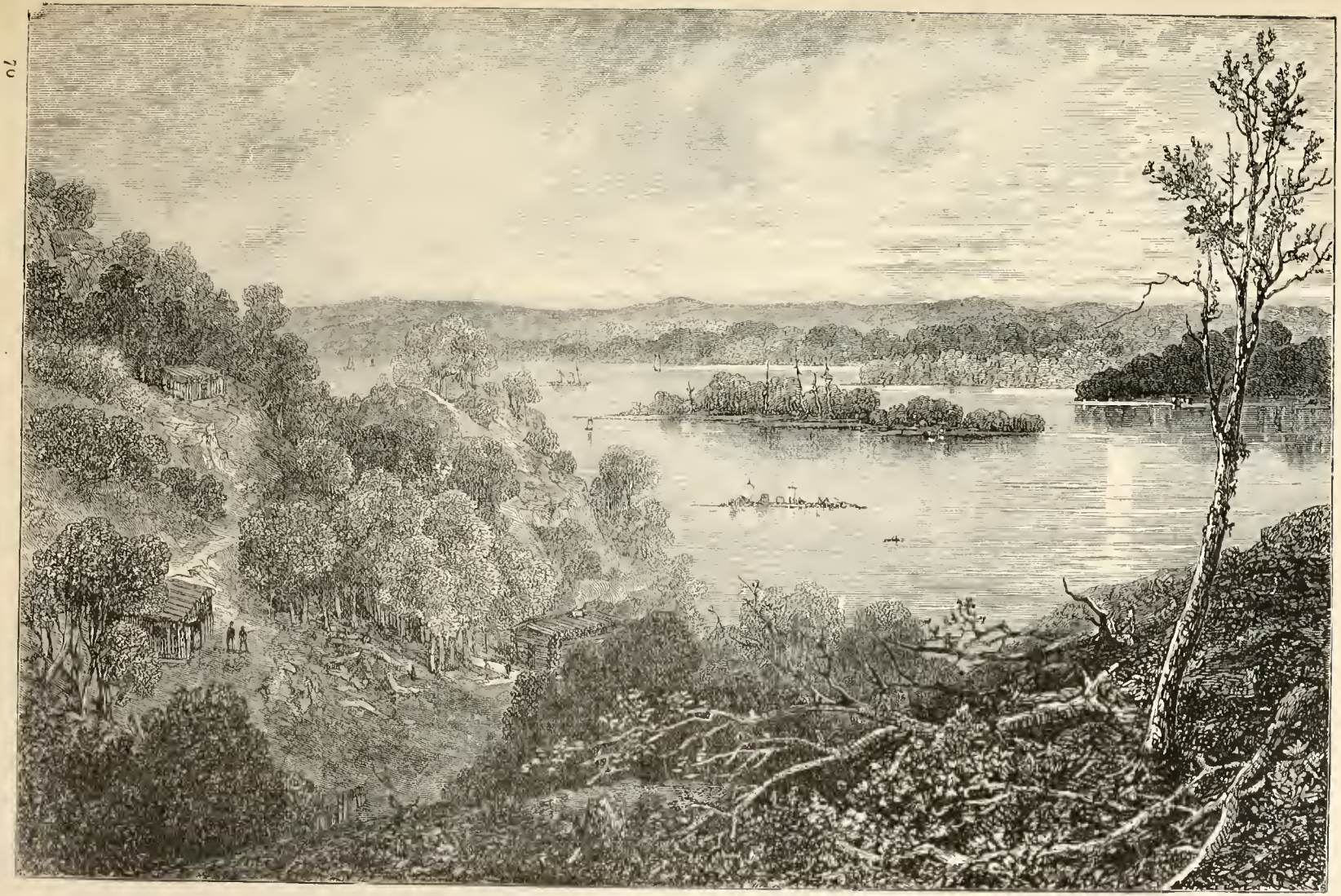
About this time General Knox resigned as secretary of war, leaving Washington much weakened by the withdrawal of these members of his cabinet. Jefferson was succeeded by Edmund Randolph, and Knox by Timothy Pickering, who, in turn, gave way to James McHenry. Hamilton was succeeded by Oliver Wolcott, who remained through Washington's administration.

Meanwhile, the new state of Kentucky, with the adjoining territory, was rapidly filling up with emigrants. Kentucky demanded the right freely to navigate the Mississippi, and asked Congress to maintain that right at any cost. The government moved too slowly to please the Kentuckians, and they prepared to invade Louisiana. This enormous area, stretching from the Gulf of Mexico to British America, and westward from the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains, belonged to Spain, which country at that time was at war with France. When the United States proposed a treaty with Spain by which the free navigation of the Mississippi could be gained, she was unwilling, but was led by her fears to comply. In October, 1795, a treaty was made by which the boundaries of Louisiana and Florida on the one hand, and the American Republic on the other, were defined, and the United States gained for ten years the right freely to navigate the Mississippi, and to use New Orleans as a port.

About the same time a treaty, of which any civilized nation ought to have been ashamed, was signed with Algiers. I have told you how, when Jefferson was minister to France, he tried to bring about a union of several powers to crush out the piracy of the Barbary States, and to end the tribute the Christian nations were forced to pay those robbers. He failed, and now the United States joined the list of countries that gave tribute to the pirates. Between 1785 and 1793, the Algerine corsairs had captured fifteen American vessels, and had made slaves of a hundred and eighty officers and seamen. By the treaty of November 28, 1795, Algiers promised not to molest our citizens, provided we paid $800,000 for the prisoners then in their power, and an annual tribute of $23,000, and made the Dey, or ruler, a present of a frigate worth $100,000. I suppose the United States could not do better at the time, although it seemed a shameful surrender on the part of a strong nation. The treaty, however, did not last long, as you shall soon learn.

In the conflicts between two great political parties, there are always bitter feelings and hard words. Washington, although great and good, was abused and reviled, just as many an excellent president has been since. It was even said that he was dishonest, and there were rash congressmen who claimed he ought to be impeached. He was always a federalist, and the democrats in Congress fought against him. Shortly after entering upon his second term, there was more trouble about the treaty that Jay had made with England. The majority of the House of Representatives were so opposed to the treaty that, when the members met in March, 1796, they did all they could against it, though it had been ratified by the Senate and proclaimed by the president.

The house felt aggrieved because their counsel had not been asked, and they passed a vote, calling on the president to send to them the papers and correspondence connected with Jay's negotiations. Washington refused to submit the papers, on the ground that the house had no constitutional right to make such a demand, and his compliance would act as a bad precedent.



VIEW ON THE MISSISSIPPI.

The Senate, as required by law, had ratified the treaty, but to bring its measures into operation, money was required, which could only be granted by the house. The opposition, therefore, thought they could still defeat the measure by refusing to grant the needed appropriations.

When the matter came before the house, there was a majority against it. Fisher Ames of Massachusetts, who rose to speak in favor of the administration, was ill and could hardly keep his feet. He was pale, thin and weak, and his voice was faint. But by and by, becoming eager and excited with his subject, his voice grew strong, his eyes flashed, and he made one of the most eloquent pleas ever heard on the floor of Congress. Many were moved to tears, and one of the members of the opposition, dreading the effect of his impassioned oratory, asked that the vote on the question should be postponed until the next day. The debate was continued through the session and the government won, though only by the close majority of three.

As one administration draws to a close, we begin to talk about the men who are to be the next candidates for office. Washington's second term would end on the 4th of March, 1797, and during the autumn of the previous year, the question of his successor was freely discussed. There were many, including John Adams, who wished him to be a candidate for a third time. The country was still involved in difficulties, and, despite the opposition to the policy of Washington, a majority believed that he was the only one who could lead the United States to a lasting peace and prosperity. But the great man was utterly weary of the task; he was growing old, and longed for the quiet of his loved home and family. His resolution could not be shaken, and he saw with a relief that can not be described the approach of his final retirement from office.

Although his term would not close until the 4th of the following March, the farewell address to the people of the United States was dated September 17, 1796. In this memorable paper, he made known his determination not to be considered among the number from whom a new president was to be chosen. He expressed his deep gratitude for the many honors his countrymen had bestowed on him; for the steadfast confidence with which his measures had been supported, and for the many chances thus given of showing his inviolable attachment to the institutions of his native land. The love of liberty, he said, was so interwoven with every ligament of their hearts, that no recommendation of his was necessary to fortify that attachment. The unity of government, by which they were made one people, had also become very dear to him.

"It is justly so," he continued, "for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence — the support of your tranquillity at home, your peace abroad; of your safety, of your prosperity; of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But, as it is easy to foresee that, from different causes, and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth — as this is the point in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed — it is of infinite moment that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national union to your collective and individual happiness; that

you should cherish a cordial, habitual, and immovable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and speak of it as of the palladium of your political safety, and prosperity; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned, and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts. For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens, by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of AMERICAN, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must also exalt the just pride of patriotism more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits, and political principles. You have, in a common cause, fought and triumphed together; the independence and liberty you possess are the work of joint counsels and joint efforts, of common dangers, sufferings, and successes."

Washington then pointed out the mutual advantages derived from one another by the different sections of the Union, and warned his countrymen against the danger of sectional parties. The constitution of 1787 had a just claim, in his judgment, to the confidence and support of the nation. The basis of their political system was the right of the people to make and to amend their constitutions, but the constitution existing for the time was obligatory upon all until changed by an explicit or authentic act of the whole people. In the most impressive manner, Washington entreated the citizens to be on their guard against the baneful effects of party spirit.

Washington insisted upon the need of giving support to the principles of religion and morality and of promoting institutions for the diffusion of knowledge. He thought the public credit an important source of strength and security, and that the best way of maintaining it was to avoid debt, not only by shunning needless expense, but by vigorous exertions in time of peace to pay the debts caused by war.

The president reminded his countrymen that to pay debts there must be revenue, and therefore, taxation, a thing never convenient or pleasant. Respecting foreign nations, he advised that America should observe good faith and justice toward all, but should avoid passionate attachment to any one. Washington doubtless meant to warn his countrymen against the blind enthusiasm that many had shown for France and their unreasoning hatred of England. Such passion he declared was likely to lead them astray, and that the safe rule about foreign countries was, in extending commercial relations, to have with them the least possible political connection. The primary interests of Europe could have only a remote relation to us. Harmony and liberal intercourse with all nations were called for by policy, humanity and interest; but no exclusive preferences even in matters of commercial policy should be permitted.

The farewell address of Washington contained much more of the highest wisdom and statesmanship and was a priceless gift to the nation he loved and served so well. There may have been times when its counsels were neglected, but undeniably, it proved to be one of the chief causes of our wonderful prosperity.

CHAPTER XX.

JOHN ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION. 1797–1801.

THE farewell address of Washington produced an excellent effect on the people of America. When the various state legislatures met they voted thanks to the president, and gave the warmest praise to his conduct during the eight years in which he had filled the highest office in the gift of his country. There was general regret that the nation was to lose his invaluable services. Some of the states published the address with the laws that all might read the matchless text-book in the leading principles of government.

When Congress convened in December, Washington met them for the last time. In addressing that body, he reviewed the general condition of the country, and recommended measures that he thought important. He advised a gradual increase of the navy, the encouragement of agriculture, the establishment of a national university and a military academy.

During the Revolution, Washington recommended the fine location at West Point for a military school of instruction, and an act establishing the United States Military Academy at that place was passed March 16, 1802. Fifty students, or cadets, were to receive instruction under the senior engineer or officer, assisted by the corps of engineers of the army. Later acts established professorships of mathematics, engineering, philosophy, etc., and made the academy a military body subject to the rules and articles of war. In 1815, a superintendent was appointed, and in 1843, the present system of appointments was instituted, so as to limit the number of cadets to 312, of which more than one half fail to graduate. The West Point Military Academy is the finest institution of its kind in the world.

The last session of Congress during Washington's adminstration was not marked by any important business. The people were thinking more about the approaching election than any thing else. The federalists and democrats were arrayed against each other. John Adams stood at the head of the former party and Thomas Jefferson was the leader of the latter. The democrats had the advantage of being devoted to one man as their candidate, while the allegiance of the federalists was divided among several. Several leaders in the northern and eastern states favored Hamilton, and some John Jay; but the majority preferred John Adams. The contest therefore was narrowed to a struggle between Adams and Jefferson. An attempt, however, was made to divide the ranks of the federalists by putting forward another candidate in the person of Thomas Pinckney of South Carolina. Hamilton has been given the credit of this idea, which failed in its object.

BURNING JAY'S EFFIGY. (*See page 215*)

Pen drawing by W. L. Jumel.

The election, however, was very close. The number of votes necessary to elect was seventy, and Adams received only seventy-one. Jefferson stood but three votes lower, and therefore became vice-president. Thus the highest officer was a federalist and the next a democrat. Adams called himself the "president of three votes," and felt that his position was difficult, but he was not the man to lose courage on that account. "John Adams," he wrote to his wife, "must be an intrepid to encounter the open assaults of France and the secret plots of England, in concert with all his treacherous friends and open enemies in his own country; yet, I assure you, he never felt more serene in all his life."

John Adams, the second president, was born at Braintree, Mass., in October, 1735. He graduated at Harvard College at the age of twenty, and three years later was admitted to the bar. He was an active and influential member of both the first and second Continental congresses, and did more than any other man to strengthen the American sentiment for independence. It was he who persuaded Congress to adopt the Declaration of Independence. Jefferson himself declared that Adams was the pillar of its support; its ablest advocate and defender. It was at the suggestion of Adams that Washington was appointed to the chief command of the army, and although Adams afterward severely criticised the commander-in-chief, he lived long enough to acknowledge the injustice of such criticism.

During the early part of the war the duties of Adams were many and varied. He was chairman of twenty-five committees, besides that of the board of war, and board of appeals. He accomplished great results as commissioner to France and Holland and as minister plenipotentiary to negotiate a treaty with Great Britain. He secured large loans and influenced leading European powers to make beneficial treaties with the new American republic. He and Franklin framed the preliminary treaty of Versailles, and, as you have learned, he was the first American minister to England, which position he held until 1788. Congress thanked him for the "patriotism, perseverance, integrity, and diligence" displayed during his career abroad.

The president-elect took the oath of office on the 4th of March, 1797, and entered upon his important duties. The ceremony took place in the hall of the House of Representatives. Among the spectators present was Washington, who, you may be sure, was treated with the greatest reverence.

The first trouble that President Adams met was the French question. During the progress of the election, the representative of France, in the hope of helping Jefferson, published a letter addressed to the secretary of state, in which he gave all the causes of complaint of his government against the federal administration. In his inaugural speech, Adams proved clearly that the charge that he favored a monarchy was untrue, and his statement of principles was satisfactory. He showed, also, by re-appointing the cabinet left by Washington, that he had no intention of taking an extreme position. Timothy Pickering was secretary of state; Oliver Wolcott, secretary of the treasury; James McHenry, secretary of war; and Charles Lee, attorney-general.

It soon became plain that America would have to take decided steps to maintain her honor against the arrogance of France. Before Adams took the oath of office, Charles

Cotesworth Pinckney, the new American minister in France, had been ordered by the directory to leave that country.

Not only was he driven from France, but we were given to understand that no other minister would be received until we had complied with the demands of the French Republic. Orders were also issued for the French marine to seize American vessels.

President Adams was not the man to submit to this. He called an extraordinary session of Congress on the 15th of May, and laid before the two houses the dispatches from Paris. Many of the members still felt kindly regard for the nation that had befriended America in adverse times, and they favored conciliatory steps. With the consent of the Senate, President Adams appointed Elbridge Gerry and John Marshall to accompany Mr. Pinckney to Paris in the effort to effect a peaceful issue. On their arrival, M. Talleyrand, the adroit minister of foreign affairs, told them they could not be received by the directory. They were allowed, however, to stay, and informal negotiations were opened with them.

The insulting proposal was made that, aside from a loan to the government of France, each member of the directory should be given two hundred and forty thousand dollars for personal use. Indignantly resisting the demand, Pinckney uttered the sentence which has been repeated thousands of times since, "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute!" When it was found that they could not be intimidated, Pinckney and Marshall were ordered out of the country. As Gerry sympathized with French ideas, he was allowed to stay. When finally he returned home, he was greatly blamed by his countrymen for remaining after the departure of his associates.

Adams began preparations for the war which seemed certain to come. The president was authorized to detach eighty thousand men from the militia of the United States, to make provision for an increase of the navy, and to augment the national revenues. While the three envoys were in France, the president, believing they would fail, addressed a letter to his cabinet, asking their views as to the proper course to be taken. Should it be a declaration of war, or an embargo? Should a change be sought in the relations with other European powers, especially with Great Britain?

The secretary of state favored an alliance offensive and defensive with Great Britain. The secretary of war recommended the fullest preparation for war. He opposed a formal alliance with Great Britain, but favored overtures through the American minister to obtain a loan, the aid of convoys and the transfer of ten ships-of-the-line, should Congress give authority to obtain so many. He proposed further, in the event of a rupture with France, that facilities should be given England for conquering the Floridas, Louisiana and Spanish South America, on the understanding that all the territory east of the Mississippi, including the port of New Orleans, should be given to the United States. To this wild scheme Adams never would have consented.

Some time after, on learning how the envoys had been treated in Paris, the president submitted two questions to his advisers. First, Should all the particulars be disclosed at once to Congress? Second, Should the president recommend a declaration of war? By way of reply, Lee favored delay; McHenry thought the same as before, while the other secretaries gave no answer. On the 19th of March, therefore, Adams sent a

message to both houses, urging complete preparations for defense. He sent also the dispatch from France notifying our government that the directory had decided to forfeit all neutral ships and had closed French ports against all vessels that had so much as touched at any English port on their voyage. The president wished to get our envoys

THE MEETING OF JEFFERSON AND GENET.

out of reach of the French authorities before he sent the other dispatches; but Congress demanded them, and they were sent in.

They caused great excitement. The most vigorous preparations for war were set on foot. An army was voted, consisting of twelve new regiments, with engineer and artillery corps. A navy of twenty-four vessels was ordered and our merchantmen were

authorized to arm themselves against the French vessels of war. It may be said that on the ocean the two nations were really at war, for actual fighting took place.

Once more Washington was called from his loved retirement to take command of the army. He obeyed, asking, however, that Alexander Hamilton should be the acting commander-in-chief, although Washington was to select the leading officers and was to take an active part should it become necessary. As before, he declined to receive any pay for his services.

Washington devoted himself to the great task with his usual thoroughness. He

JOHN ADAMS.

was embarrassed in selecting his officers. Many who had served in the Revolution asked to be re-appointed, and it was a question whether their former rank should be recognized. He finally decided to choose the best men without regard to their previous positions in the army.

Military men are exceedingly sensitive as to their rank, and Washington, with all his wisdom, could not avoid giving offense. He proposed Alexander Hamilton for inspector-general and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney and Henry Knox for his two major-generals. This offended General Knox, who thought that, as an older officer than

either of the others, he ought to be inspector-general. Such was also the opinion of the president, but he heeded the wishes of Washington, who spent a month in Philadelphia with Hamilton and Pinckney in making arrangements for the raising and equipment of the forces.

It had now become necessary to create a naval armament, and another department of state — that of the navy — was formed, whose secretary was given a seat in the cabinet. Communication with France was prohibited; orders were issued authorizing the capture of any of her vessels that appeared off the coast, and the treaty of alliance with that country was declared void, together with all other treaties made with her.

During this intense excitement, Congress passed certain laws that were odious to many citizens and especially to the democrats, who considered them as opposed to the spirit of our institutions. Many of the bitterest writers for the public press were foreign adventurers. They were so venomous during the progress of the presidential election and afterward, that Congress passed an act which was approved June 18, 1798, by which the president was allowed to send out of the country such aliens as he thought dangerous to the United States. He could allow them to stay by requiring bonds for their good behavior. This was aimed at Volney, Collot, and other French writers who had caused much trouble.

You always hear this law coupled with another, the two being spoken of together as the "alien and sedition laws." The sedition law made it a penal offense to defame Congress or the president, to excite the hatred of the people against them, to stir up sedition in the United States, to form unlawful combinations for resisting the laws and to aid foreign nations against the United States.

The passage of these laws kindled the first sentiments of nullification. The legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky declared that when Congress passed acts beyond its constitutional powers the states were not bound to obey, and that each state had the right to settle for itself the question of constitutionality. These resolutions were dictated by Vice-president Jefferson. They were sent to the legislatures of other states and became an absorbing subject of discussion for many years, because they involved the theory of "state rights" embodied in the constitution.

At the close of President Adams's message to Congress, June 21, 1798, he used this declaration: "I will never send another minister to France without assurances that he will be received, respected, and honored, as the representative of a great, free, powerful, and independent nation." The publication in the papers of the treatment of the mission to France, raised a storm of indignation against the government of that country. Even Jefferson, who gave little help to the president, and who had always been a warm friend of France, felt that there was good cause for such anger.

The president had little faith either in England or France and his difficulty was to restrain and direct popular sentiment. He was in favor of a war for defense only, and was warmly supported by the people, but the impetuous Hamilton, who wielded great influence, urged a war of offense. He favored the raising of an army of fifty thousand men, which should be permanent.

As the summer of 1798 advanced, political matters received a check by the outbreak

of yellow fever. That dreadful scourge raged in Philadelphia, New York, and the leading towns along the seaboard. People knew not how to combat the mysterious disease, and the number of deaths was appalling. Congress adjourned from Philadelphia to Trenton, but its business was hampered by the absence of many of its members. The president was at his home in Quincy, Massachusetts, where he was in great distress over the serious illness of his beloved wife. Fortunately, his fears were soon removed, and this remarkably gifted woman was spared to him.

Shortly before this time, the directory in Paris had begun to show signs of returning sense. They were at war with several powerful nations, and they saw the enthusiasm with which the president was supported was likely to array America also against France. It was clear that they must retreat from their position. As a first move the directory censured the members that had asked for bribes from America and hinted that France was ready to treat for peace.

Elbridge Gerry arrived from Paris, October 1, 1798. The impatience felt toward him for staying in France after his colleagues were sent out the country was much lessened when he brought the news that the directory wished to retrace their steps. A few days later, President Adams received a letter from our minister in Holland saying that France was uneasy over the prospect of an alliance between our country and Great Britain.

The president met his cabinet toward the close of November. They were under the influence of Hamilton and were strongly opposed to the policy of Adams, who they thought did not sufficiently resent the arrogance of France. He submitted to them the questions whether he ought to recommend a declaration of war with that country, or whether negotiations looking to peace should be renewed. It was finally decided to omit from his speech to Congress all reference to a declaration of war. Respecting the renewal of negotiations with France, the president was willing to make such an attempt so soon as France should show a desire to re-establish friendly relations. He prepared a paragraph to that effect, but the cabinet opposed it. Adams, however, was resolute, and he read the paragraph in his speech delivered to Congress on the 8th of December, in the presence of Washington, Hamilton and Pinckney, who were in Philadelphia for the purpose of organizing the army.

President Adams was not held in high regard by the leading politicians of either party, but, being a conservative man, he kept aloof from the extreme wings of both. The democrats disliked him because he did not love France, while the ultra federalists disliked him because he did not hate that country as much as they did. His chief encouragement from officials came from Minister Murray, in Holland, who encouraged the president in his desire to make peace. Holland had made an offer of mediation, and on the 21st of January, 1799, the president received the reply of the directory. In this reply, it was stated that the directory had already expressed its hearty wish for reconciliation. If such reconciliation did not take place, it would be the fault of the United States.

Within a fortnight came a letter from Minister Murray, giving the particulars of his interviews with the French agent at The Hague, concerning the assurances that Adams

required before he would send another minister to France. The French agent had received a dispatch from Talleyrand, in which the guarantee demanded was given. This was a long stride toward peace, and Adams was not the one to hold back. He sent a communication to the Senate, nominating Mr. Murray, then minister at The Hague, as minister to France. In doing so, he provided that nothing should be done beyond his simple appointment, until such further assurances had been given by France as the dignity of the United States required.

The president's communication caused much agitation in the Senate. After two days' discussion, the nomination of Mr. Murray was referred to a committee of five federalists. This committee called on the president, and insisted that he should modify his proposed measure, but Adams assured them that he would neither withdraw nor change the nomination, but would name Oliver Ellsworth, chief justice of the supreme court, and Patrick Henry, of Virginia, as fellow-commissioners with Mr. Murray.

While Patrick Henry favored the action of the president, he declined to go abroad, and Governor Davie, of North Carolina, replaced him. The opposition did all they could to delay matters, hoping that war would yet come. The president unwisely helped them, by going to his home in Massachusetts at the very time he ought to have stayed at his post.

This delay lasted week after week and month after month until the secretary of the navy wrote to Adams that his presence was absolutely necessary at Trenton, whither the public offices had been taken during the prevalence of yellow fever. Adams reached Trenton, October 10, 1799. He found that nothing had been decided, but the war party felt stronger than when he left, because of the news of British and Russian successes over France. Indeed, these who clamored for war were sure the peace mission was defeated.

Adams called a meeting of his cabinet on the evening of October 15, and laid before the members the draft of instructions to the commissioners, which had been prepared by the secretary of state. A long discussion followed, but in the end the document was unanimously approved by the ministers. On the 5th of November the commissioners sailed for France.

I have told you in another place that actual fighting took place on the ocean. In February, 1799, the American frigate *Constellation*, of thirty-eight guns, commanded by Commodore Truxton, came into collision with the French frigate *L'Insurgente*, of forty guns. A short time before, the *L'Insurgente* had taken the American schooner *Retaliation*, but she now found herself compelled to surrender to the Americans.

The news of the prospect of a treaty was slow in reaching the vessels at sea, and in February, 1800, believing war was sure to come, Commodore Truxton forced another French frigate, *La Vengeance*, of fifty-four guns, to strike her colors. For this victory, Congress voted to Truxton a gold medal.

Meanwhile, that military genius, young Napoleon Bonaparte, had fought his way to power through the flames of the revolution in France. He was quick to see the madness of the directory, and he gave cordial welcome to the new embassy sent out by President Adams. Suspecting the dishonesty of Talleyrand, he placed his brother

Joseph at the head of the three plenipotentiaries appointed to treat with the Americans. Under such circumstances it did not take long for the representatives of the two nations to reach an understanding. War was averted, and the friendship between America and France has never been seriously disturbed since.

WEST POINT, ON THE HUDSON. THE LOWER BATTERY.

During those exciting times, the country was profoundly shocked by the death of Washington — the grandest and most heroic figure in American history.

On the 14th of December, 1799, he died of pneumonia, induced by exposure to a driving storm of snow, hail and rain. A few minutes before his death he asked his secretary to have his body kept three days before burial. The secretary bowed. "Do you understand me?" the dying man asked. "Yes," was the answer. "It is well," said

Washington, these being his last words. The body was buried on the 18th. A schooner stationed off Alexandria fired minute-guns while the funeral procession moved from the house to the vault. The troops, horse and foot, led the way, followed by four of the clergy; next came Washington's horse, with saddle, holsters, and pistols, led by two grooms in black; then the body, borne by the Masonic order, of which he was a member, and officers, followed by the family and friends, and the corporation of Alexandria. At the tomb, the Reverend Mr. Davis read the service and gave a brief address, after which the body was laid in the vault with Masonic ceremonies. The remains were placed in their present receptacle in Mount Vernon in 1837.

It may truthfully be said that grief over the death of Washington was felt in every nook and corner of the land. Memorial services were held in every town and village. Congress went in funeral procession to the German Lutheran Church. The house resolved that the speaker's chair should be shrouded in black, and that the members should wear mourning for the rest of the session. The resolutions offered in the house contained this most fitting eulogy: "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." These resolutions were written by an intimate friend of Washington, General Richard Henry Lee, or Light Horse Harry, as he was known. He was unexpectedly called away, and they were presented by John Marshall. This has led to the belief in some quarters that that distinguished jurist was the author of the immortal eulogy, but, as I have said, they were written by General Lee, the father of the late Confederate general, Robert E. Lee.

Not in America alone was Washington mourned. February 9, 1800, when the news reached France, Napoleon, then first consul, issued to the army, the following order of the day:—

"Washington is dead! This great man fought against tyranny; he established the liberties of his country. His memory will always be dear to the French people, as it will be to all free men of the two worlds; and especially to the French soldiers, who, like him and the American soldiers, have combated for liberty and equality."

It was ordered that black crape should be suspended from all the standards and flags throughout the French Republic for ten days. Impressive military ceremonies took place in the Champ de Mars, and a funeral oration was delivered in the Hôtel des Invalides, at which the civil and military authorities of the capital were present. Even old England did him honor. The British fleet lying at Torbay lowered its flags at half-mast on receipt of the news. Statesmen, orators and poets united in his praise. Byron voiced the sentiments of all, when he declared the illustrious dead to have been, among warriors, statesmen and patriots,

"The first, the last, the best,
THE CINCINNATUS OF THE WEST."

You remember that when our goverment was organized, the capital was the city of New York. It was removed to Philadelphia in 1790, where Congress ordered that it should remain for ten years, when the city of Washington should become the national capital. This city, as every youth knows, lies in the District of Columbia, which was originally a tract of country ten miles square, lying on both sides of the Potomac, about

one hundred and twenty miles from its mouth. It was ceded to the United States by Maryland and Virginia in 1790, for the purpose of making it the capital of the Union. In 1846, that part lying on the right or western bank of the Potomac, including the city of Alexandria, was retroceded to Virginia, leaving the District of Columbia seventy square miles in extent.

The city of Washington was laid out in 1781, and the building of the capitol was commenced on the 18th of April, 1793, when President Washington laid the corner stone of the north wing. The government of the district is vested solely in Congress. The inhabitants send no representatives to Congress, because they have no right to vote. The removal of the federal government to the District of Columbia took place in the summer of 1800.

In May, 1800, the country between the western frontier of Georgia and the Mississippi River, was organized into the Mississippi Territory.

People were now thinking of the presidential election that was close at hand. Party lines were closely drawn and the strife was to be a bitter one.

The federalists fixed upon John Adams and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney as their candidates, the former for president and the latter for vice-president. The republicans were divided between Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. Adams' course during the troubles with France had strengthened him, but the alien and sedition laws caused his defeat in New York state, thus giving twelve electoral votes to the republican side. He gained in other directions, but not enough to overcome the defection of the "Empire State," as New York came to be known from her decisive course in the election of 1800.

Adams received fifty-six electoral votes, and Jefferson and Aaron Burr each seventy-three. The two latter being a tie, the election was thrown into the House of Representatives. The house assembled on the 11th of February, 1801, to choose between them. On the first ballot, Jefferson had eight states and Burr six, while two states, Maryland and Vermont, were equally divided. This prevented the election of either. All the federalists voted for Burr, with the single exception of Huger of South Carolina. This was not because they liked Burr, but because they hated him less than Jefferson.

One of the severest snow-storms ever known in Washington occurred on this day. Mr. Nicholson, a republican, of Maryland, was too ill to leave his bed. Without his vote, Maryland would have been given to Burr, but with it, the result for that state was a tie. The sick member, therefore, was brought on his bed through the driving storm to the house, and placed in one of the committee rooms, where his wife stayed by his side night and day, giving him the needed stimulants. The ballot box was brought to his bed-side, and he voted on every ballot.

The house remained in continuous session day after day, until thirty-five ballots had been taken without result. By that time, it had become clear that Burr could not be elected, for it was impossible to make any break in the Jefferson ranks. On the thirty-sixth ballot, therefore, the federalists of Maryland, Delaware and South Carolina, threw blank ballots, and the federalist from Vermont absented himself, leaving the republican members to cast the votes of those states for Jefferson. Thus Jefferson secured the majority which made him president, while Burr became vice-president.

CHAPTER XXI.

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION. 1801–1809.

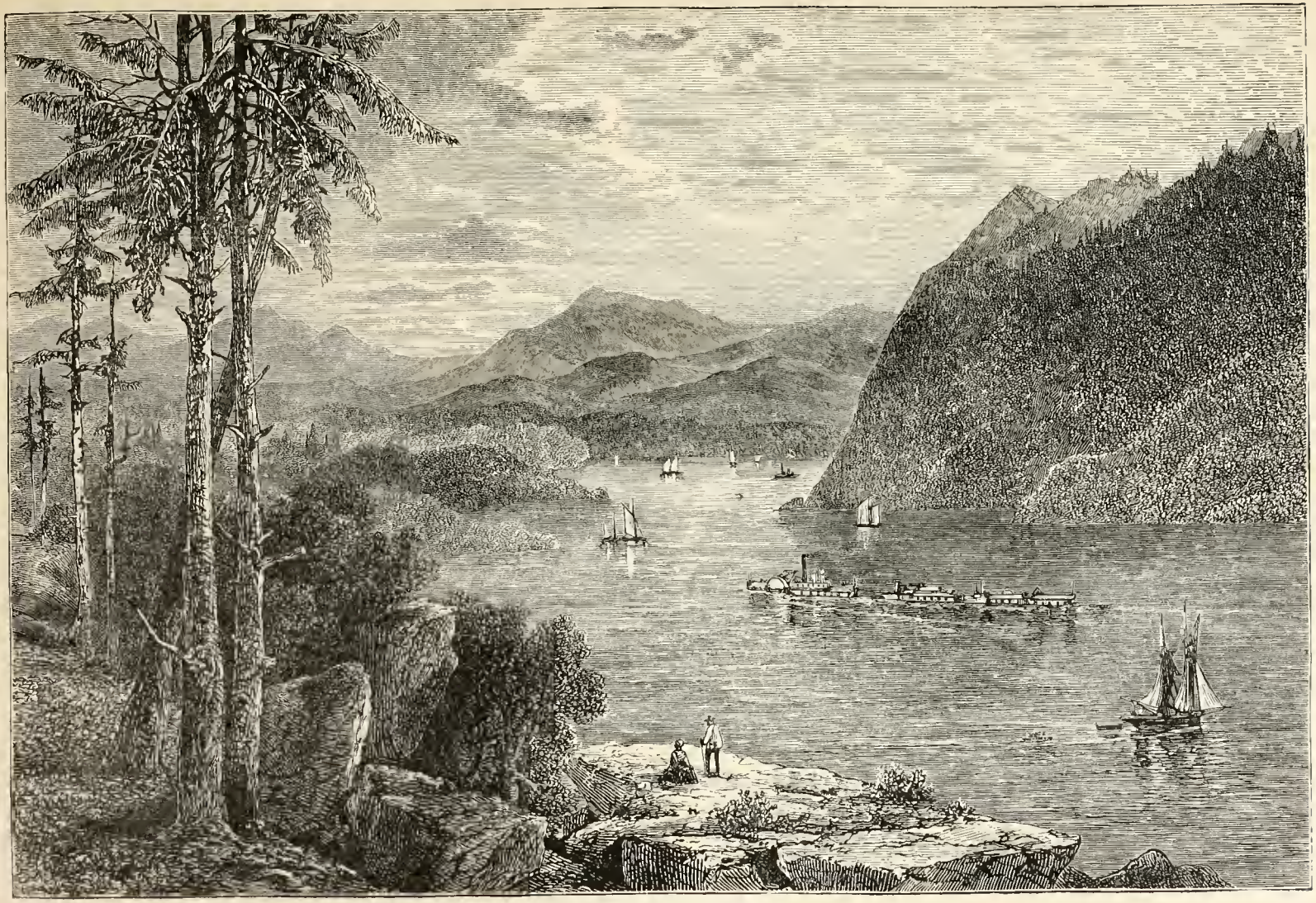
THOMAS JEFFERSON, known as the author of the Declaration of Independence and the apostle of democracy, was born at Shadwell, Virginia, on the 2d of April, 1743, and when inaugurated third president of the United States was fifty-eight years of age. Adams had led the American people over the threshold of the nineteenth century, and in 1801, his gifted successor took his place at their head.

Jefferson founded a party the central idea of which was to lessen the powers of the general government, and to increase the rights and powers of state government. To that party he gave all the energy of his masterly genius. He came into office with the full confidence of the powerful party behind him, and entered upon a work in which there was promise of brilliant success. In his inauguration he used a happy expression which has been repeated a great many times since then: "We are all republicans — we are all federalists," meaning that, though we differ in politics, we are one people in sentiment.

Jefferson was a man of original ideas and opinions, and he set to work to carry them out. He favored simplicity, reform and retrenchment. On the day of his inauguration, instead of proceeding to the capitol in state, as Washington and Adams had done, he rode thither alone, on horseback.

The social receptions that Washington and Adams had given, and which are now given by our president, were abandoned, because they smacked too much of royalty. The practice of delivering in person the presidential address to Congress at the opening of the session was also set aside, and a written message preferred, as being more democratic. He reduced the army and navy. The latter act, as it proved, was unwise. Our navy was already so small that it could not compete with those of the great nations in Europe, and it should have been strengthened rather than weakened. Besides this, he cut down the diplomatic corps; submitted to Congress a bill for diminishing the judiciary, and proposed the remission of taxes. Most of the public offices were transferred to democrats. The plea for this practice, which has been followed more or less ever since, is that a president can accomplish better results when assisted by those who agree with his policy than by those who oppose it. From this arose the curt expression, "To the victors belong the spoils."

The administration of Jefferson proved important in the history of our country. One of the first acts of Congress was to abolish the tax on distilled spirits and certain other manufactures. This enabled Jefferson to dismiss a large number of collectors of internal revenue, whose support was burdensome to the country. Then the sedition law was repealed, and the alien law modified. Measures were also taken for paying off the national debt.



THE HUDSON HIGHLANDS.

But the most important work of Jefferson's administration was the addition of a vast area of territory to our possessions.

In the year 1800, a line was drawn through the North-West Territory from the mouth of the Great Miami River to Fort Recovery, and thence to Canada. The country thus defined was admitted three years later into the Union as the state of Ohio. The portion west of the line, now the states of Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and a part of Michigan, was organized into the Indiana Territory, with Vincennes as the capital, and General William Henry Harrison as governor. About the same time, the Mississippi Territory was completed so as to extend from the western limits of Georgia to the Mississippi River.

Our relations with France were quite friendly, at the opening of Jefferson's term. In 1802, France re-established peace with Great Britain, Spain and Holland, and Napoleon Bonaparte began to turn his attention to this country. He hoped to develop a French colonial empire, not only in the West Indies, but in Louisiana, which a short time before, Spain had ceded back to France. You must bear in mind that the Louisiana of that time was a much more extensive country than the present state of that name. If you will examine your maps you can realize its immensity. It included what we now know as Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Nebraska, Minnesota, Iowa, Indian Territory, Dakota, Montana, and part of Kansas, of Wyoming Territory and of Colorado.

You will observe that had Napoleon carried out this policy, it would have given France the command of the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico. England was anxious that this should be done, for it would have acted as a check upon the Americans. Jefferson was equally quick to perceive the danger. Our western settlers demanded the free navigation of the great stream, and were ready to go to war about it; sooner or later the river must be ours.

Jefferson, who was a master of incisive English, wrote a letter to Robert Livingston, the American envoy in Paris, directing him to show, if possible, to the French government the unwisdom of its taking the proposed course. He was told to urge that France, as matters then stood, offered no point of collision with the United States; that she was looked upon as their natural friend; that there was only one spot on the globe, the possession of which made the possessor the immediate enemy of the American people:—that was New Orleans, through which three-eighths of the American produce had to pass to find market; that France by the occupation of the city would place herself in an attitude of defiance and hostility; that under such circumstances it would be hopeless to think of amity between France and America, and that the latter country would be compelled to unite with Great Britain in sweeping France from the seas, and conquering all her West India dominions. Livingston was instructed to demand the cession of New Orleans for a sum of money, in case France decided to retain Louisiana. It was also decided, in the latter event, that Spain should be induced to sell Florida.

Bonaparte saw that Louisiana was likely to prove an element of weakness rather than of strength to him. He believed that the stronger the United States became, the worse it would be for his rival and enemy — Great Britain. She had a navy with which she could drive France off the ocean and work her will with the French colonial possessions.

three thousand miles away. He therefore proposed to sell Louisiana to the American government. That was just what Jefferson wanted, and you may be sure the chance was seized without delay. There was but little debate over the price, and the bargain was completed April 30, 1803. The amount paid was eleven million two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. Bonaparte accepted in payment six per cent. bonds of the United States, payable fifteen years after date. He promised not to sell them at such price as would degrade the American government. Our government also agreed to pay certain debts due from France to American citizens, to the amount of three million seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

Peaceable possession of the new territory was taken on the 20th of the following December. By this transaction we acquired more than a million square miles of valuable land. The government of Louisiana was offered to Lafayette, but he declined it. He received a grant, however, of twelve thousand acres in the new territory.

The gain of this enormous area caused great delight in the West, but there was much misgiving in the East. It was feared that the advantages of the new territory would drain the older portions of the Union of a large portion of her population and wealth.

I am sure you will not feel sorry to learn that our country soon got into difficulty with the Algerines. We deserved to have trouble for making such a treaty with them. For twenty years we had been giving the Barbary States large sums on condition that they would not molest us. In 1787, a treaty with Morocco was signed, for which Congress paid eighty thousand dollars, and you have been told about the treaty with Algiers. Sometimes we would be a little late in carrying our tribute to those barbarians. In such cases the ruler would add a round sum as a penalty. We always paid it. Then, too, when he asked for payment in naval stores, he insisted on placing his own price on them and was shrewd enough to make it about a half or a third of what they cost us.

The tribute for 1800 was taken to Algiers by Captain William Bainbridge, in the frigate *George Washington*. Nothing could be more distasteful to the gallant Bainbridge, but he had to obey orders. While thus engaged, the Dey of Algiers told him to take the tribute of the Dey to the Sultan at Constantinople, and to haul down his own flag and run up that of Algiers. This Bainbridge refused, whereupon the Dey insolently said, "You are my slaves; for if you are not, why do you pay me tribute? I have the right to order you as I please."

As the castle guns in the harbor held Bainbridge at their mercy, he took the advice of the American consul and obeyed the orders of his master, the Dey, but the captain expressed the hope that he might deliver the next tribute from the throats of his cannon. The following year, the Dey of Tripoli became angry because he was not getting as much money as he wanted from the United States, and declared war against us. There is something amusing in the thought of that insignificant little country in Northern Africa making war against us, but the ruler was warranted in believing, from the way we had been acting, that we were afraid of him.

Such a war was of necessity a naval one, and all the fights took place in the Mediterranean. It is doubtful whether some of the pirate cruisers knew there was such a country as the United States, except when it sent money to their ruler. The war with Tripoli

proved a training school for the men and officers who were to win glory in the second war with England. It made evident, also, the great mistake of Jefferson in cutting down our navy.

The first serious fight was in August, 1801, between the *Enterprise*, a vessel of twelve guns, under Lieutenant Sterrett, and a Tripolitan vessel of fourteen guns. The engagement took place off Malta, and lasted two hours, when the Tripolitans hauled down their flag. Thinking they had conquered, the Americans left their guns and broke into cheers. Just then the enemy sent a broadside at the *Enterprise*. The battle opened again, and the Tripolitans made a desperate effort to board, but were repulsed. Again they struck their flag, but a second time treacherously fired upon the *Enterprise*.

This exhausted the patience of Sterrett, who determined to complete the work next time. He raked the enemy from stem to stern, tore away the mizzen mast, riddled the hull, and killed and wounded fifty of the men, when through the smoke, the captain was seen bounding up and down, flinging his arms about and shrieking out that he had surrendered. To show that he was in earnest this time, he flung his colors into the sea. Lieutenant Sterrett ordered him to throw overboard his arms and ammunition, cut away the rest of his masts and dismantle his ship. That being done, he was allowed to rig a jury mast and a single sail and was told to go home and give the compliments of Lieutenant Sterrett to the Dey.

The loss of the Tripolitans was severe, but how many men do you suppose were killed on the *Enterprise?* Not one. The pirates were to be dreaded when they boarded merchant ships, and they would fight like wild cats in a hand-to-hand encounter; but they amounted to little in a regular naval engagement. In July, 1802, one frigate, the *Constellation*, under Captain Murray, fought nine Tripolitan gunboats and drove five ashore, the rest escaping by running into the harbor. It happened several times in these sea fights that the Tripolitan vessel would be destroyed with all or part of her crew, while not an American would be hurt.

In 1803, the squadron in the Mediterranean included nine ships, carrying two hundred and fourteen guns. The *Philadelphia* captured a Moorish cruiser which bore authority from the Governor of Tangier to attack American commerce. Commodore Preble entered the harbor and demanded an explanation of the emperor, who disavowed the act of the governor. Soon after, the *Philadelphia*, while chasing a blockade-runner, struck upon a reef in the harbor of Tripoli. Seeing her helpless situation, a fleet of gunboats assailed her and Captain Bainbridge was obliged to surrender. He and all his men were made prisoners.

The vessel was a valuable prize to the enemy, who floated her when the tide rose, and refitted her. But one night in February, 1804, a small vessel, named the *Intrepid*, under command of Lieutenant Stephen Decatur, ran in and made fast to the *Philadelphia*, under the pretense that she was a merchantman and had lost her anchors. There was no suspicion on the part of the Tripolitans, until a swarm of Americans sprang up from the deck where they had been lying and dashed over the sides of the frigate and through her port-holes. The decks were speedily cleared of the enemy, and the frigate fired in a dozen places, after which Decatur withdrew. The *Philadelphia* was burned to the water's

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WASHINGTON ON HIS DEATHBED. (*See page 229.*)

Drawn by Francis Christy.

edge, and was thus lost to the Moors, who otherwise would have done great damage with her.

On the 3d of August, Commodore Preble entered the harbor of Tripoli and bombarded the town from his mortar-boats, while his frigates and schooners engaged the batteries. Three of the gunboats closed with the enemy. One under command of Lieutenant James Decatur, a brother of Stephen, poured a volley into a Tripolitan gunboat, which struck its colors. Decatur stepped on the deck to take possession, when the captain shot him dead, the boats swung apart and the miscreant escaped for the time.

Meanwhile, Stephen Decatur had boarded one of the enemy's gunboats, bayoneted those who did not surrender or jump overboard, and then made his way to the boat where he knew his brother had been killed only a short time before. Drawing alongside, he led his men over her rail and into one of the fiercest fights that had yet taken place. Decatur, as soon as the desperate nature of the conflict would permit, singled out the captain who had treacherously shot his brother, and engaged him in a personal contest which could end only in the death of one or the other.

There are different accounts given of this notable fight. The late Admiral Stewart, who was a bosom friend of Decatur and who took a prominent part in the war with Tripoli, told the story to me, exactly as Decatur told it to him on his return from the engagement.

"Decatur and I, when boys, attended the old Academy in Philadelphia," remarked Stewart, "and sat next to each other. I never in all my life saw any one so fond of fighting as he. I remember that every day in school he would arrange a bout with one of the boys. Of course it would take place after the dismissal of school, and the favorite spot was the old Quaker burying-ground not far away. I have known weeks to pass, during which Decatur never missed arranging such a fight on every school day. I always went with him, but he and I never fought. Perhaps one reason was because he was so much stronger than I; but he always showed a great friendship for me and I returned it. He was a year younger, and I entered the navy some time before he did.

"In the fight with the Moors, Decatur had no trouble in singling out the captain, who wore a gaudy uniform and was of giant proportions. As soon as Decatur could get within reach, he attacked him. The captain lunged at Decatur with a pike, which Decatur parried with such violence that it swung the Tripolitan part way round. He turned like a cat, however, just as Decatur made a terrific blow with his sword, which would have lopped off the enemy's head, had not the blade struck the pike and broken in two. Seeing the point of the pike coming toward him again, Decatur threw up the hand which held only the hilt of his sword and succeeded in partly parrying the weapon, but the point passed through his coat and pierced his breast. Decatur wrenched it from his grasp, flung it away, and then sprang upon the big fellow, just as I have seen him, many a time, when a boy, leap upon his antagonist.

"Decatur was a splendid wrestler, but to his astonishment he found the Moor was a better one, and when the two fell on the deck, Decatur lay flat on his back with the Moor on top. The latter had that dagger in his sash around his waist. (At the time Admiral Stewart was relating the story, I held in my hand the poniard which was about

eight inches long, very thin and sharp, the blade curved like a crescent and the handle of ivory.) The Moor reached down his hand to draw it, so as to stab Decatur to death. Decatur saw what he was trying to do, and throwing his arms around the neck and shoulders, and flinging his legs over those of his enemy, he pressed him so tightly against his own body that the man could not shove his hand between, so as to draw the dagger. Luckily for Decatur, one of the pistols in his belt was near his side, so that while his left arm still clasped his foe like a vise, he drew his pistol with his right hand.

"Then it was that he did a most reckless thing — but it was just like him. He reached upward and over with the hand holding the pistol (which he managed to cock, by pressing the muzzle against the side of his enemy as he raised the hammer), until it was over the back of the Moor. Then, Decatur pointed the muzzle downward directly toward his own breast and pulled the trigger. Had the bullet passed through the body of the other, it must have penetrated that of Decatur himself. When I reminded Decatur of that, he said he knew it at the time, but he was sure of one thing — the shot was bound to kill the Moor and he could not feel certain of doing that if he fired in any other manner. At the same time, there was a good chance that Decatur would not be hit. So it proved. The man gave a gasp and a quiver, and, as Decatur relaxed his hold, rolled off on the deck and died without a struggle. Decatur drew that dagger from his sash and presented it to me."

Decatur was not in danger from this barbarian alone, for another attacked him while he lay on the deck, but Reuben James, a sailor, threw out his arm and had it shorn clean off, thereby saving the life of his commander. The Tripolitans had three boats sunk, three captured, and a large number of men killed, while the loss of the Americans was only fourteen killed and wounded.

Other bombardments of the city took place, but the bomb-shells, as was afterward learned, were of poor quality and little impression was made. The enemy learned to avoid all close encounters with the Americans. They were able to do more by fighting at long range, as they proved in several instances.

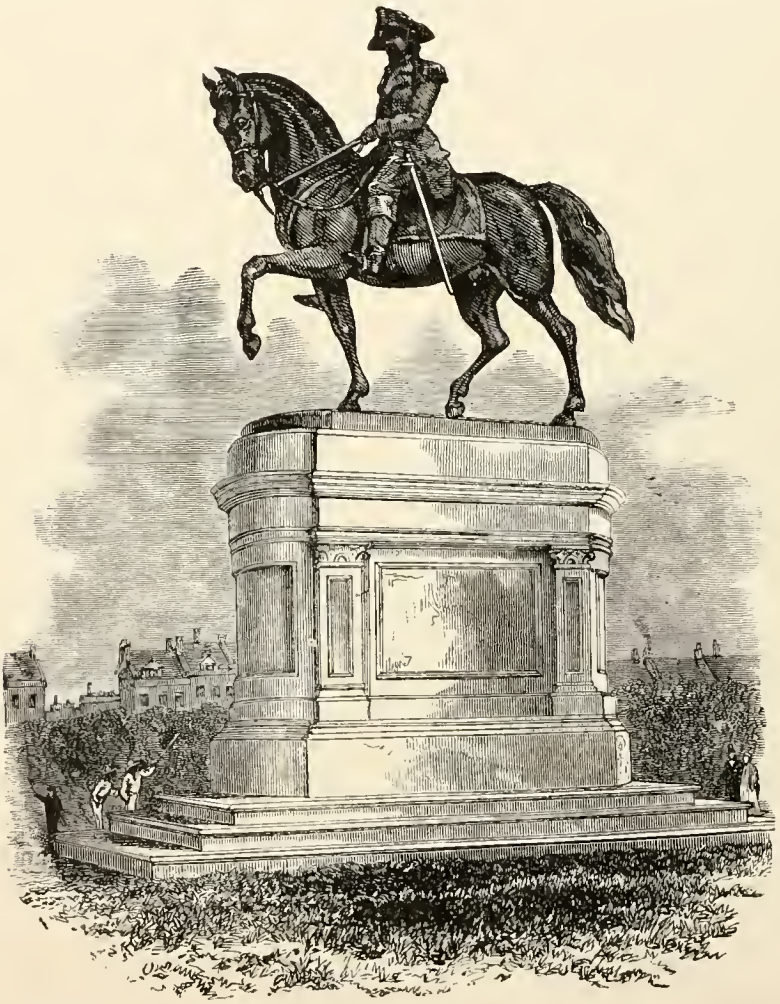
The Americans fixed up the *Intrepid* as a bomb-ketch, with which they hoped to do great damage to the enemy. A hundred barrels of powder and missiles were stored in the hold, and the deck was covered with a hundred and fifty shells and a large quantity of shot and pieces of iron. The intention was to send this prodigious torpedo, as it may be called, among the Tripolitan fleet in the harbor and there explode it. If this could be done, the effect would be terrific.

The plan was to have Captain Richard Somers, Lieutenant Henry Wadsworth, and eleven men sail quietly to the proper point, set fire to the slow match, and then escape in a couple of small boats. Several smaller vessels convoyed the *Intrepid* to the western entrance of the harbor, where they halted, and in low tones bade good-by to Somers and his brave companions, who sailed away in the darkness. The stars were visible overhead, but a haze rested on the water, so that objects could not be seen far away.

"I had charge of one of the convoys," said Admiral Stewart, who at that time was a lieutenant, "and was almost the last to part with the young captain. I watched his course by a night-glass. He advanced slowly, and seemingly without the slightest ripple.

We who were left behind scarcely spoke, and what few words were said were in low tones. I kept my gaze on the *Intrepid* until it gradually faded from sight in the gloom.

"I was looking steadily after it when I saw a point of light suddenly begin to move forward and up and down at the same time. It was exactly as if a man was running with it in his hand, which was happening. Fifteen or twenty steps were taken when it vanished out of sight, as though the one carrying it had leaped down a hatchway. I



STATUE OF WASHINGTON AT BOSTON.

held my breath, for I knew what it meant. The *Intrepid* was still a long ways from her destination and she must have been discovered by the enemy. There was only one thing that a brave man could do under such circumstances and that, it was well understood, Somers was prepared to do.

"It could not have been ten seconds after the light went down the hatchway, that a column of fire shot up in the sky, as if from the mouth of a volcano, and a crashing boom shook the sea. Then the fragments that had been hurled high in air, fell in the

water around us and only the burning and smoking remnants of the *Intrepid* were to be seen. A few days later, the thirteen bodies were picked up and given burial. They were so mangled that we could not recognize one of them."

Of course it never could be positively known what caused the explosion of the *Intrepid*. Many thought it was accidental, but Admiral Stewart, who was certainly good

WASHINGTON'S GRAVE, MOUNT VERNON.

authority, was convinced that Somers himself or one of his men did it when he believed they were discovered.

In November, Commodore Samuel Barron arrived with the *President and Constellation*, and superseded Commodore Preble. The squadron now numbered ten vessels, carrying two hundred and sixty-four guns.

The reigning bashaw of Tripoli was Yusef Carmelli, who had gained the throne by deposing his elder brother, Hamet. The latter had fled to Upper Egypt, and was in command of a large force of Mamelukes, fighting the Turks. William Eaton, the Amer-

ican consul at Tunis, knew all about him, and believed that he could be used as an instrument in forcing the usurper Yusef to make peace with the United States. He proposed to our government that Hamet should be placed back on the throne, and Eaton was authorized to carry out the rather ingenious scheme. Accordingly, Eaton made his way to Alexandria, sought out Hamet, and made the proposal. Hamet eagerly accepted the offer, and furnished Eaton with a body of Arab cavalry and seventy Greek soldiers. They marched one thousand miles across the Barcan desert, suffering frightful hardships, and, in the latter part of April, 1805, appeared before Derne, one of Yusef's eastern seaports. Yusef was also approaching the town, and Eaton saw it would not do to wait. Arms and ammunition were landed from the American fleet, several of whose vessels appeared off shore, and which prepared to give help. A bombardment was opened, and the enemy were driven from their guns, while the land force, numbering eleven or twelve hundred, stormed and captured the town. For the first time, the stars and stripes floated above a fortification on the eastern side of the Atlantic, having been placed there by a motley force of Americans, Arab cavalry, Greek infantry, and Tripolitan rebels.

The enemy was defeated again in May, and the invaders marched toward Tripoli. But by that time, as you may well suppose, Yusef was in a terrible state of fear, and was anxious for peace. A treaty was made on the 3d of June, the representative of the United States being Colonel Tobias Lear, our consul-general in the Mediterranean. It was agreed that sixty thousand dollars should be paid for the captives in the hands of the Tripolitans; but no more tribute was to be given, and an exchange of prisoners was effected.

Poor Hamet found that nations are as selfish as individuals. He had come a thousand miles across the desert, under the promise that the United States would help restore his throne to him, and bring his usurping brother to terms; but one of the conditions of the treaty made with Tripoli was that the United States was to give him no help at all. It was unkind treatment. Hamet was obliged to leave his wife and children with his brother as hostages for his peaceful behavior. He afterward visited the United States, and after a pitiful appeal to Congress, was presented with twenty-four hundred dollars.

While these stirring events were going on across the Atlantic, affairs were prospering at home. President Jefferson recommended an appropriation for an exploring expedition across the continent from the Mississippi. The suggestion was adopted, and an expedition numbering thirty men left the Mississippi on the 14th of May, 1804. The commanding officers were Captains Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, both Virginians by birth. They had had abundant experience in Indian warfare, and were well fitted for the important enterprise. Embarking in a flotilla, they worked their way up the Missouri for a distance of twenty-six hundred miles. They gave the names of Jefferson, Gallatin, and Madison to the three streams that form the Missouri. Leaving their boats in charge of a detachment, the rest, riding horses that they had captured, pushed on across the mountains. They discovered the two streams that are named after the officers, followed them to the Columbia, and in turn traced the river to the Pacific Ocean.

Lewis and Clark were gone more than two years on this expedition, and their experience was exceedingly interesting. They met many Indians who had never seen a white man, and who were as much astonished as were the natives that first saw Columbus. A negro in the party was a source of never-ending amazement, as were the clothing, firearms, and a sagacious dog that performed a number of tricks.

The explorers came back to civilization and made their report to the government. It was very important, as they were the first party of white men that had ever crossed the continent north of Mexico. Captain Lewis was governor of Missouri Territory from 1806 to 1809, when he committed suicide. Captain Clark also became governor of Missouri Territory, and later superintendent of Indian affairs, dying in St. Louis, in 1838.

In giving you an account of the election of Jefferson, you learned how near Aaron Burr came to the presidency. For thirty-five ballots the vote was a tie, when most fortunately Jefferson was successful. I shall now tell you more about the man who was Jefferson's opponent.

Aaron Burr was born at Newark, New Jersey, in 1756. Both his father and grandfather (the latter the celebrated Dr. Jonathan Edwards), were president of Princeton College. Young Burr possessed a brilliant mind, and graduated from the same college with the highest honors. He acted a creditable part in the Revolution, was remarkably successful as a lawyer, became attorney-general of New York, was sent to the United States Senate in 1791, and, as you know, was vice-president during Jefferson's first term.

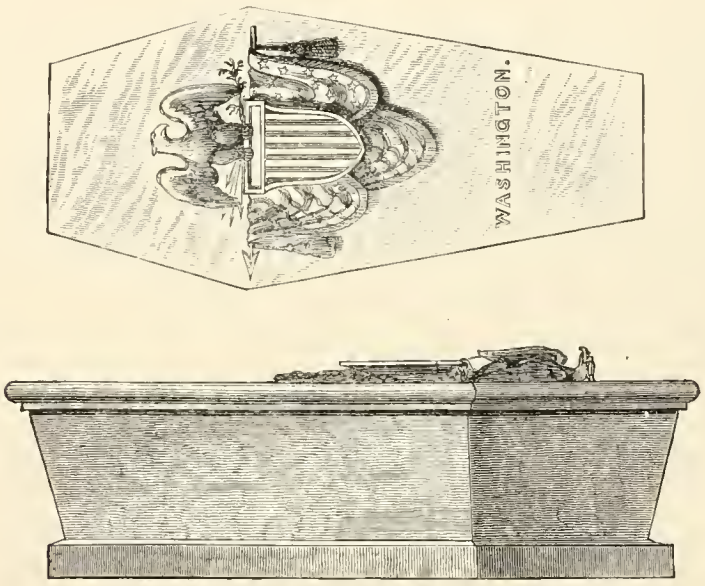
Alexander Hamilton vehemently opposed Burr, from his first entrance into politics. He believed that he was a dangerous man to place in office, and he did not hesitate to say so. It was Hamilton who prevented Burr's election to the presidency. The quarrel between them became so intense that, in 1804, Burr challenged Hamilton to a duel. Hamilton was foolish enough to accept, and the duel was fought on the 12th of July, 1804, at Weehawken, New Jersey, close to the spot where a son of Hamilton was killed in a similar manner a few years before. Hamilton fired his pistol in the air, but Burr aimed to kill. His antagonist fell, mortally wounded, and died the next day.

This tragic affair shocked the country, and caused Burr to be detested by thousands who had been his admirers. He presided in the senate after the duel; but his friends fell away from him, and in the fall of 1804, when Jefferson was re-elected, George Clinton, of New York, took Burr's place as vice-president. Impelled by his consuming ambition and his total lack of moral principle, Burr formed a plot for founding a new empire. Its precise nature can never be known with certainty. Some thought he meant to take possession of Mexico, others believed he had designs upon New Orleans, while Burr himself stated that he intended to settle on Baron Bastrop's lands on the Washita River.

The most absurd schemes always find followers, just as the most absurd doctrines never fail to have believers. Burr visited Blennerhassett's Island, in the Ohio, near Marietta, where he was warmly received by Harman Blennerhassett and his lovely wife. The couple were in good circumstances, and had a most charming home on that beautiful island. Blennerhassett listened eagerly to Burr's dazzling schemes and readily

joined him. Burr continued on down the river, often stopping, and always being received with enthusiasm.

General James Wilkinson was commander-in-chief of the American army in that section, and was also governor of Louisiana. When Burr reached New Orleans, Wilkinson received him, and the two held a long, secret conference, and a correspondence in cipher was kept up through the following winter. Burr always declared that Wilkinson was heart and hand with him. Wilkinson denied this, but, as he is known to have been engaged in other treacherous schemes against his government, it is a matter of doubt as to who told the truth. In 1807, Burr was tried on a charge of high treason, but was acquitted. Such of his followers as had been imprisoned were thereupon released.



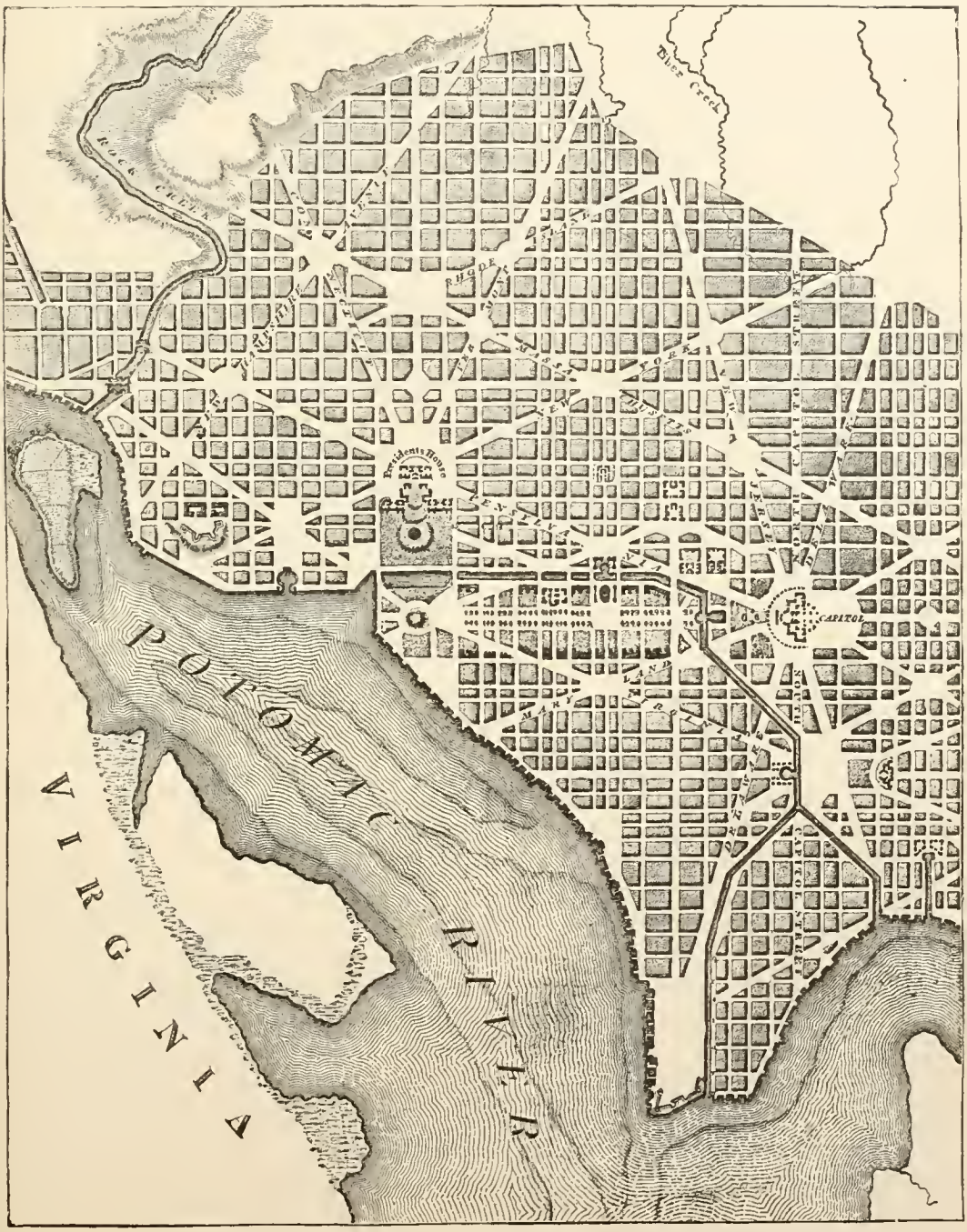
WASHINGTON'S SARCOPHAGUS, MOUNT VERNON.

Blennerhassett's entire fortune had been wasted in Burr's schemes, and his home had passed into the hands of others.

Among the many notable things that took place during the administration of Jefferson, was the voyage of a steamboat on the Hudson River. This boat was the *Katherine of Clermont* (often given simply as the *Clermont*), and was the invention of Robert Fulton, who was born in Little Britain, Lancaster County, Pa., in 1765.

The *Katherine of Clermont* was rudely built, and was over one hundred feet long and nearly twenty feet wide, with side paddle-wheels, and a sheet-iron boiler that had been brought from England. She was launched at New York, and began her voyage up the river August 1, 1807. It took her thirty-two hours to make the trip against the current, the distance being one hundred and fifty miles. Her voyage was very unlike that of the fine steamers which to-day journey back and forth at a speed of twenty miles or more an hour. On her return, she ran aground and had to wait for high tide before she could float off. Below Kingston her boiler burst, without hurting any one, and she was

laid up for repairs, but soon after began to make regular trips between New York and Albany at the rate of five miles an hour.



PLAN OF THE CITY OF WASHINGTON, AS ORIGINALLY LAID OUT. (*From a plate published in* 1793.)

Perhaps you do not know that in his younger days Robert Fulton was a painter.

He went to London to perfect himself in portrait painting, under the famous Benjamin West. While there, he met Earl Stanhope, James Watt, and others, who were trying to find practical uses for the steam engine that had been recently invented. Fulton's mind was turned in the same direction. The first application of steam power to propel boats was on the Seine, in 1803, but the experiment was not successful. Fulton became famous after building the *Katherine of Clermont*, and made many steamboats. He constructed the first United States war vessel, called *Fulton the First*. Among his numerous inventions were an improvement in canal locks, a submarine torpedo, and machines for marble sawing, flax spinning and rope making. The *Fulton the First* was blown to pieces by accident. The first steamer to cross the Atlantic was the little *Savannah*, which made the voyage in 1819, in twenty-six days. Now it is often done in less than a week.

I am quite sure you will be interested to read the following letter, which was written by Fulton, shortly after his voyage down the Hudson:

NEW YORK, 22d August, 1807.

MY DEAR FRIEND:—My steamboat voyage to Albany and back has turned out rather more favorable than I had calculated. The distance from New York is 150 miles; I ran it up in thirty-two hours, and down in thirty hours. The latter is just five miles an hour. I had a light breeze against me the whole way going and coming, so that no use was made of my sails; and the voyage has been performed wholly by the power of the steam engine. I overtook many sloops and schooners bearing to windward, and passed them as if they had been at anchor.

The power of propelling boats by steam is now fully proved. The morning I left New York there were not, perhaps, thirty persons in the city who believed that the boat would even move one mile an hour, or be of the least utility; and while we were putting off from the wharf, which was crowded with spectators, I heard a number of sarcastic remarks. This is the way, you know, in which ignorant men compliment what they call philosophers and projectors. Having employed much time and money and zeal in accomplishing this work, it gives me, as it will you, great pleasure to see it so fully answer my expectations. It will give a quick and cheap conveyance to merchandise on the Mississippi, Missouri, and other great rivers, which are now laying open their treasures to the enterprise of our countrymen. And although the prospect of personal emolument has been some inducement to me, yet I feel infinitely more pleased in reflecting with you on the immense advantage that my country will derive from the invention. However, I will not admit that it is half so important as the torpedo system of defense and attack; for out of this will grow the liberty of the seas, an object of infinite importance to the welfare of America and every civilized country. But thousands of witnesses have now seen the steamboat in rapid movement, and they believe — but they have not seen a ship of war destroyed by a torpedo, and they do not believe. We can not expect people in general to have a knowledge of physics, or power of mind sufficient to combine ideas and reason from causes to effects. But in case we have war, and the enemy's ships

come into our water, if the government will give me reasonable means of action, I will soon convince the world that we have surer and cheaper modes of defense than they are aware of. Yours, etc.,

ROBERT FULTON.

The most serious trouble during Jefferson's administration was with England, and it grew out of the war between that country and France. Great Britain insisted on the law that no neutral nation can in time of war prosecute a trade that is not permitted in time of peace. The growing commerce of this country was greatly injured by the English. Our coasts were harassed by foreign privateers that were in the habit of burning prizes to which they feared their title was not clear. English vessels did not hesitate to enter any of our creeks or harbors that they wished to examine, American ships were seized while in the act of entering American ports, and in some cases their crews were taken out and ill-used. The president, therefore, equipped a force to cruise along the coast and bring the offenders to trial as pirates.

The United States had been allowed to import West Indian produce into this country, and afterward to export it to France. Now, this was a roundabout way of doing that which was prohibited, for our vessels were forbidden to trade directly between the West Indies and France. The Americans cared little, so long as the business came to them, but the privilege was now stopped, and the British government ordered that all vessels engaged in such trade should be lawful prizes, if captured.

But the greatest indignation was caused by the course of Great Britain toward American seamen. Perhaps you know that the mother country held that her citizens could not throw off allegiance to England by becoming citizens of another country. She claimed the right, therefore, to search American vessels for deserters.

Doubtless in reading of the course of Great Britain in this matter, you have felt as though there was no excuse for it; that, in short, she did it out of a simple desire to injure us. But we must be just to each party, and try to look at the trouble from the British standpoint. That country was engaged in a desperate war with France, and needed every sailor. A great many were deserting, and no doubt some found refuge in our service. Feeling that these men belonged to her, and could not be spared, Great Britain maintained that she had the right to arrest them wherever they might be.

Such, as I said, was the British view of the case, but the course of Great Britain was wrong. It is sound doctrine that the deck of every vessel on the ocean is as sacred as the soil of the country whose flag floats at her masthead. Great Britain had no more right to search an American vessel than she had to send a party of soldiers to search the house of one of our citizens.

Most of us know that it does not take a great deal to stir up excitement among our people. It was too soon after the Revolution for Americans to feel kindly toward England, and they were now roused by her course. Meetings were called in the large cities, petitions were sent to the legislatures, and measures of retaliation were urged.

It is at such times that the rulers of a country most need to use judgment and dis-

THE CAPITOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

cretion. War is a dreadful scourge, and no nation should appeal to it except as a last resort. There were thousands of Americans who clamored for immediate hostilities with Great Britain, but those in authority moved carefully. On the 17th of January, 1806, the president sent the house a message on the subject of the difficulties with England. The matter was discussed for several weeks, and ended in the resolution to prohibit certain articles of British growth and manufacture. The bill passed both houses by large

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

majorities, though the more conservative senate was disposed to postpone action, because of what looked like a favorable line of conduct on the part of Great Britain.

The minority included most of the federalists, and a few democrats who followed the lead of the erratic genius known as John Randolph of Roanoke, a tall, gaunt, thin-voiced man who was proud to claim descent from Pocahontas. His power in the way of wit, sarcasm and invective often goaded his opponents to fury. There are many stories told of his ability in this respect.

Henry Clay was frequently made the object of Randolph's biting satire. One day when there was no important business on hand, and while Henry Clay occupied the chair, Randolph made a long speech on the development of the frog from a tadpole. If you had been a listener in the gallery, you would have wondered why Randolph should make such a speech to the grave legislators around him. No doubt, too, you would have wondered why every one paid close attention and kept smiling and nodding significantly to each other, why, also, Henry Clay strove hard to keep down his anger that more than once was near the exploding point.

The truth was that Randolph, who swung his long arms and spoke with the most solemn face and impressive manner, while giving the history of the development of the frog from the tadpole, was drawing a picture of Henry Clay himself. His origin was quite humble, and his career was so accurately sketched by Randolph, who mentioned only the frog, that every member saw whom he meant, and Clay could not conceal his chagrin. When Randolph finally depicted the tadpole, which after shedding his tail and rising to the full dignity of a frog, sometimes accidentally hopped upon a little elevation and looked down on the other frogs, under the belief that he was presiding over them, the touch was so ludicrous that a general burst of laughter followed. I need not say that Clay was not one of those who laughed : he felt no inclination to mirth.

There were very few who dared enter into a contest of wit with this remarkable Virginian, but occasionally he met his match. One day Sherman, of New Hampshire, who was a shoemaker by trade, addressed the house on some question in which he was deeply interested. While he was thus engaged, Randolph rose, and, in his thin, rasping voice, asked whether the gentleman from New Hampshire would allow him to ask a question.

"Certainly," replied Sherman, who, like the rest, listened for the inquiry, which it was supposed would bear some relation to the subject under discussion.

"I would then like to know what the honorable gentleman from New Hampshire did with his leathern apron before he came to Congress?"

Randolph leaned forward, and held his hand like a funnel to his ear to catch the reply.

"I cut it up to make moccasins for the descendants of Pocahontas!" thundered Sherman. Randolph sat down without asking any more questions, and you may be certain the rest of the members laughed heartily.

Randolph finally goaded Henry Clay into fighting a duel with him, but neither was hurt. Randolph was irritable, and took delight in wrangling with the people. Being a democrat, Jefferson counted upon his support, and perhaps that was the reason Randolph turned against the president, and in the house, assailed his policy. For some cause, he and a few followers were nearly always opposed to the president.

Troubles with foreign powers went from bad to worse. By an order of council dated May 16, 1806, the British government declared the whole coast of Europe, from the Elbe, in Germany, to Brest, in France, in a state of blockade. Napoleon, then at the head of the French people, retaliated on the 21st of November with the celebrated Berlin decree, blockading all the ports of the British Islands.

Jefferson believed that the troubles arising from the French Revolution were nearing an end, and he wrote a letter to Alexander, Czar of Russia, in behalf of neutral rights. Russia at that date, as indeed ever since, showed a friendly feeling toward this country, and although her emperor was a despot, he was known to have benevolent principles.

In his communication, our president complimented Alexander on his efforts to secure peace, and dwelt on the common interests of the young republic and the nations of northern Europe in preserving neutral rights. He believed that the Russian sovereign and the emperor of France had it in their power, at the agreement which seemed close at hand, to render great services to nations in general, by incorporating in the act of pacification a correct definition of the rights of neutrals on the high seas. These rights could be enforced by shutting out from all commerce with the rest, any nation that violated them. Jefferson closed his letter with the following striking language:

"Having taken no part in the past or existing troubles of Europe, we have no part to act on its pacification. But, as principles then may be settled in which we have a deep interest, it is a great happiness for us that they are placed under the protection of an umpire, who, looking beyond the narrow bounds of an individual nation, will take under the cover of his equity the rights of the absent and unrepresented. It is only by a happy concurrence of good characters and good occasions that a step can now and then be taken to advance the well being of nations. If the present occasion be good, I am sure your Majesty's character will not be wanting to avail the world of it. By monuments of such good offices may your life become an epoch in the history of the condition of men; and may He who called it into being for the good of the human family, give it length of days and success, and have it always in His holy keeping!"

Nothing came from this letter, and in the spring an incident took place which brought the relations between England and the United States to a higher tension than before. The British ship *Leander*, cruising off New York, was especially exasperating because of her rigorous search for runaway English seamen. She fired into a coasting vessel near Sandy Hook and killed one of the men. Thereupon, the president, on the 3d of May, issued a proclamation forbidding the entrance of the *Leander* and the two ships in her company into the waters of the United States; calling upon all officers, civil and military, to apprehend Henry Whitby, the captain of the *Leander*, on a charge of murder; prohibiting any communication between the shore and the offending ships; and warning all citizens against giving them aid, under the penalty of the law.

Special envoys were sent to England to arrange the trouble, and for a time it looked as if they would succeed. The negotiations, however, came to naught, and a most glaring outrage roused the Americans to the fighting point. The British ship-of-war *Leopard*, of fifty guns, commanded by Captain Humphreys, was cruising off the Capes of Virginia, on the 23d of June, on the watch for the American frigate *Chesapeake*, which, it was said, had several English deserters on board. Hailing the *Chesapeake*, commanded by Captain James Barron, the captain of the *Leopard* asked permission to send dispatches on board. When the boat reached the *Chesapeake*, a letter was presented to Captain Barron containing the order of Admiral Berkeley to search the *Chesapeake* for

several deserters who were named, and who, it was declared, were known to be on that vessel. Captain Barron sent back a refusal to be searched, and took occasion to say that he had instructed his recruiting officer not to enlist British subjects, and that he had no knowledge that they were on board. When this note was read by Captain Humphreys he hailed the *Chesapeake* and said that the order of Admiral Berkeley must be obeyed. He then poured several broadsides into the *Chesapeake*, which, being entirely unprepared for hostilities, struck her flag. The fire of the *Leopard* had killed three men and wounded eighteen.

A boat was now sent to the *Chesapeake*, the officers of which tendered their swords, but the English officer declined to receive them, and demanded the muster-roll of the ship. Four men were picked out as the deserters wanted, and were taken to the *Leopard*. Three of them were negroes. Beyond question they were deserters, but they claimed to have been impressed from American ships. The white man was an Englishman, who was taken to Nova Scotia and hanged. The negroes were finally released, after being reproved for causing so much trouble.

The excitement produced by this outrage equaled that at Lexington over thirty years before. The chagrin was great, because the *Chesapeake* was unable to make any resistance. By many Captain Barron was denounced as a coward. Decatur condemned him so strongly for his course that a duel resulted. That, however, was so many years later that it can only be referred to in this place.

The president, by proclamation, shut all American harbors and waters against the English navy, prohibited any intercourse with such vessels, and sent a special minister to England to obtain satisfaction. A hundred thousand men in the different states were ordered to hold themselves in readiness, and, on the 29th of July, the president summoned Congress to meet on the 25th of October, by which time it was expected the reply of the English ministers would be received. The English foreign secretary disavowed the action of Captain Humphreys, offered reparation, and recalled Admiral Berkeley. England, however, would not give up the right of search, but instructed her officers to use no unnecessary violence in enforcing it. The reparation promised was never made.

The concessions of England, and the fact that we had no navy, doubtless prevented war. After much discussion, Congress, on the 21st of December, passed the famous Embargo Act. It forbade American ships to sail for ports not in the United States. It was believed that by suspending commercial intercourse with France and Great Britain those nations would be compelled to recognize the rights of American neutrality. No doubt it had this effect to a slight degree, but America herself suffered the most. The act was unpopular in New England and New York, which were largely engaged in commerce. In the course of time it affected all the states injuriously. It was much ridiculed, and the opponents caused some amusement by spelling the word backward, so as to call it the *O grab me* act. The result was a source of mortification to Jefferson, who found many of his supporters falling away from him. This great man, however, did enough to win the gratitude and admiration of all later generations of Americans. Among the beneficent acts of which he was the direct author, were the Declaration of

Independence, the decimal system of coinage, the Statute for Religious Freedom, and the founding of the University of Virginia. Naturally, he was proudest of the first, and it was by his wish that the fact of such authorship was carved on his tombstone.

During those stirring times, the period approached for the choice of Jefferson's suc

CAPTAIN BAINBRIDGE AND THE DEY OF ALGIERS.

cessor. James Madison of Virginia and George Clinton of New York, were nominated for president and vice-president by the democrats. Mr. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, of South Carolina, and Rufus King were the candidates of the federal party. Madison was elected president and Clinton retained the vice-presidency, which he had held since 1805.

CHAPTER XXII.

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION. 1809–1817.

JAMES MADISON, the fourth president of the United States, was born in King George County, Virginia, in 1751. From his earliest years he received the best educational advantages and graduated from Princeton College when twenty years old. He studied law, theology, philosophy and general literature with such application that he allowed himself only three or four hours sleep each day. The result was an injury to his health from which he never recovered.

Becoming interested in politics, he was elected, in 1776, a member of the Virginia Convention. When Jefferson came back from France, Madison was offered the mission but declined it. When the position of secretary of state was vacated by Jefferson, Madison refused to accept the place lest he might cause discord in Washington's cabinet. Although at first a federalist, he changed his views and became an ardent democrat. On the election of Jefferson to the presidency, Madison was appointed secretary of state and held the office through the entire administration. Jefferson in his autobiography pays the following fine tribute to his successor:

"Mr. Madison come into the House in 1776, a new member and young; which circumstances, concurring with his extreme modesty, prevented his venturing himself in debate before his removal to the Council of State in November, '77. He went thence to Congress, then consisting of few members. Trained in these successive schools, he acquired a self-possession which placed at ready command the rich resources of his luminous and discriminating mind and of his extensive information, and rendered him the very first of every assembly afterward of which he was a member. Never wandering from his subject into vain declamation, but pursuing it closely, in language pure, classical and copious, soothing always the feelings of his adversaries by civilities and softness of expression, he rose to the eminent station which he held in the great National Convention of 1787; and in that of Virginia which followed, he sustained the new Constitution in all its parts, bearing off the palm against the logic of George Mason, and the fervid declamation of Mr. Henry. With these consummate powers were united a pure and spotless virtue which no calumny has ever attempted to sully. Of the powers and polish of his pen, and of the wisdom of his administration in the highest office of the nation I need say nothing. They have spoken, and will forever speak, for themselves."

Three days before the end of Jefferson's term, the Embargo Act was repealed by Congress. It was some relief to our shipping to be allowed to trade with all nations except England and France, but, since the bulk of the trade was with them, there was still much suffering.

It was known that Madison would continue the policy of Jefferson, of whom he had long been an ardent supporter, but you can see that he took the reins of government at a most trying time. Just before he came into office, the Massachusetts legislature drew a vivid picture of the general situation in the following language: "Our agriculture is discouraged; the fisheries abandoned; navigation forbidden; our commerce at home restrained, if not annihilated; our commerce abroad cut off; our navy sold, dismantled, or degraded to the service of cutters or gun-boats; the revenue extinguished; the course of justice interrupted; and the nation weakened by internal animosities and divisions, at the moment when it is unnecessarily and improvidently exposed to a war with Great Britain, France, and Spain."

You would become weary of the details of the negotiations that were pressed by the United States in the hope of averting war. I therefore condense that which, if fully told, would cover a great many pages.

Having repealed the embargo, Congress adopted what was called the Non-intercourse Act. This allowed American merchantmen to go abroad, but they were forbidden to trade with Great Britain. Negotiations being continued, Mr. Erskine, the British minister in Washington, who had authority to treat with the United States, gave notice that by the 10th of June, the Orders in Council, so far as they affected the United States, would be repealed. Thereupon, the president suspended the Non-intercourse Act, but the British government disavowed the work of their agent and the orders stood as before.

The next spring, Napoleon issued a decree authorizing the seizure of all American vessels that might approach the ports of France. In the following November, however, the decree was reversed, and the restrictions on the commerce of the United States were removed. That was a good time for Great Britain to show her liberality and statesmanship, but, as usual, she did nothing of the kind. She kept to her narrow policy, and sent ships to hover around the American ports on the watch to enforce her odious measures. Mr. Erskine, the British minister, having been recalled, "Copenhagen Jackson," as he was known, was sent to take his place. This individual was so insulting in his dealings with our government that he was notified that no more communications would be received from him. By and by he too returned to England, and no one came to take his place.

About this time the British sloop *Little Belt*, commanded by Captain Bingham, while engaged in stopping merchant vessels near our coast, hailed, off the shores of Virginia, the American frigate *President*, under Commodore Rodgers. The reply of the American not suiting the Englishman, he sent a shot into the *President*.

Straightway the Englishman found he had caught a Tartar; for the *President* let fly a whole broadside by way of reply, following it with several others which badly crippled the enemy. The result of the *Little Belt's* insolence was the killing of eleven of her men and the wounding of twenty-one. The engagement took place in the evening, and the name of the British vessel was not learned until the next morning. The occurrence, as you may well suppose, intensified the feeling through the country. Each government approved of the action of its officer and that did not tend to quiet matters between the two countries, which were on the verge of open rupture.

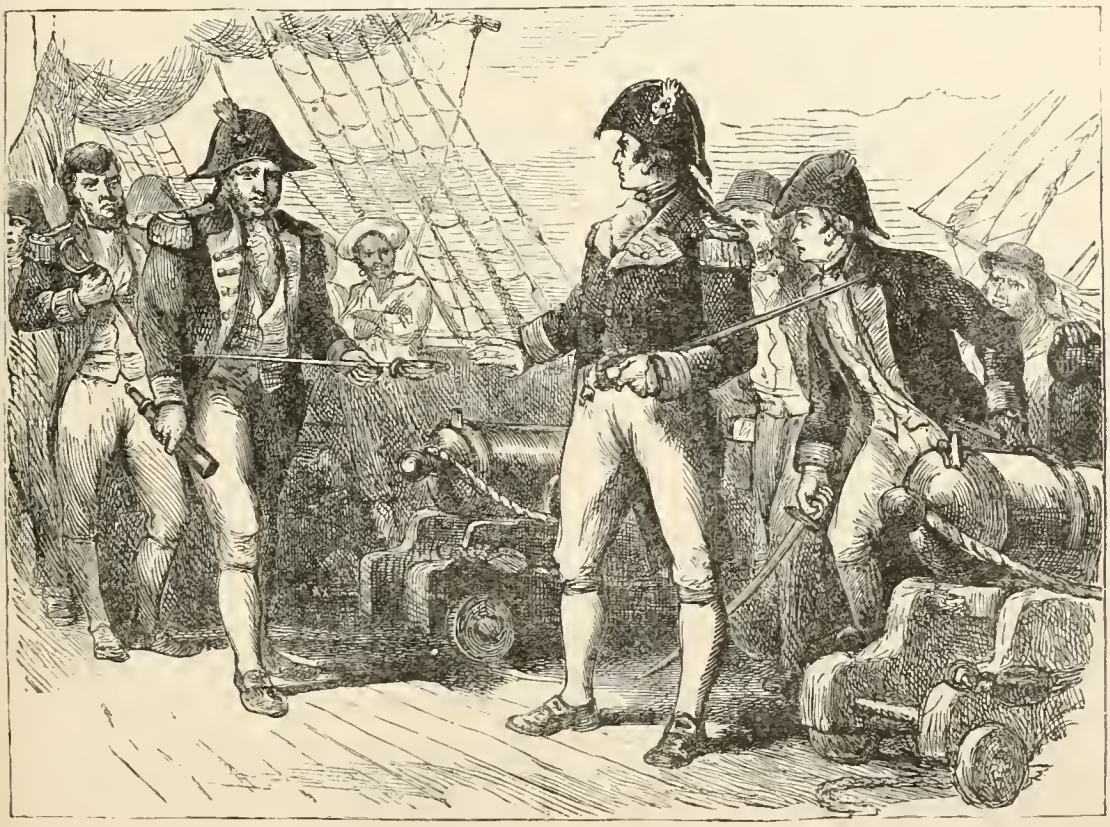
There were other occurrences at this period of which we must not lose sight. The census of 1810 showed that our population was almost seven millions and a quarter. The Union was composed of seventeen states, and several of the territories would soon be ready for admission. The West was growing fast ; settlers were clearing off the woods, building their cabins and tilling the ground. There were still a great many Indians roaming through that section, and when they saw how rapidly the white men were taking up their hunting grounds, they were angry and alarmed. True, there were hundreds of thousands of square miles to the westward, which would remain wild for a long time,

DUEL BETWEEN BURR AND HAMILTON.

and where they could hunt and fish and fight without fear of disturbance from white men ; but you can understand why an Indian never likes to be driven from his home. In that respect he is like ourselves.

The principal tribes in the West, as it was then known, were the Shawnees, Wyandots, Delawares, Miamis, Kickapoos, Winnebagoes and Chippewas. The first named were the most daring, and they did more than any other tribe to give to Kentucky the name of The Dark and Bloody Ground. They were numerous, skillful, powerful and bloodthirsty. Many a soldier and pioneer was brought low by the tomahawk or rifle of the Shawnee, when the two fought on equal terms.

During the early years of the present century two famous leaders appeared among the Shawnees. One of them was the great war chief Tecumseh, and the other was his twin brother known as the Prophet. The latter was an impostor — one of those sorcerers who went among his people pretending that the Great Spirit told him what he wished the red men to do. Among other things he insisted that all the disasters which had come upon them were because they drank whisky or "fire water" and had given up the habits of their fathers. No doubt there was much truth in this statement, for there is no greater cause of woe in the world than alcohol, and there is no being which takes



THE OFFICERS OF THE "CHESAPEAKE" OFFERING THEIR SWORDS.

more naturally to it than the American Indian. It can not be said that the brothers had much success in their temperance crusade among their tribe.

Tecumseh, however, was one of the most gifted Indians that ever lived, the superior to King Philip, Pontiac, or that miscreant of modern times, Sitting Bull. He was personally brave, and was a wise, far-seeing and skillful leader and organizer. Among those of his own race he never had a superior as an orator. His fine face and figure, his black, piercing eyes and graceful gesture were accompanied by a voice of wonderful power. It seemed to resound and echo and fill the air around until the dusky auditors grasped their tomahawks and were eager to leap upon their enemy.

Tecumseh, like Philip and Pontiac, formed a plan for uniting the tribes I have named, in a grand war against the settlers. It can not be believed that he had any hope of destroying all the white people, for the traditions from his ancestors must have taught him that such attempts had always failed, when the chances of success were ten-fold greater than in his own time. He hoped to drive the Americans into restoring to his people their hunting-grounds. Tecumseh maintained that the lands belonged to *all* the tribes and that no sale of them to the whites could be valid unless such sale was agreed to by the chiefs of *all* the tribes.

Now the Miamis and some others had sent their sachems to Fort Wayne in 1809, where they met General William Henry Harrison, the governor of the North-west Territory and sold three million acres of land to the United States. The sale was a fair one, but Tecumseh would not sign the treaty and threatened with death those who did. He made a tour among the Indians as far south as Tennessee, urging them to lay aside their jealousies and unite in beating back the white men from their hunting-grounds.

While addressing the Creeks, Tecumseh became angry because they did not show enough enthusiasm. Finally he shouted that when he got home he would stamp his foot on the ground and it would tremble. It was an idle boast, but it was fulfilled in an amazing manner. Some weeks after he had gone, the West was shaken by an earthquake so severe that it caused great damage. When the Creeks felt the ground rocking under their feet, they sprang up and ran out of their lodges in consternation, exclaiming:

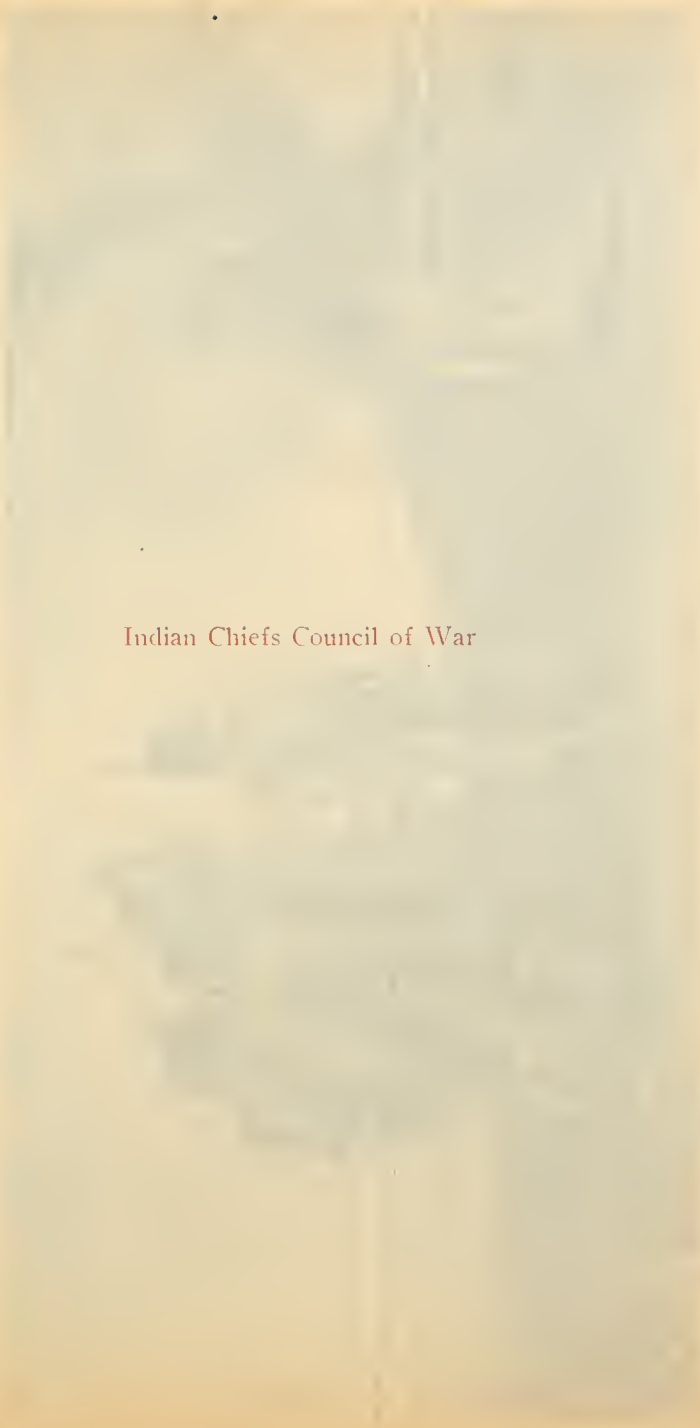
"Tecumseh has got home! Tecumseh has got home!"

General Harrison did all he could to show Tecumseh and the Prophet that their course was wrong and would bring disaster to the Indians. They had several interviews, but the Shawnee leaders insisted that they must have back their lands ceded by the treaty at Fort Wayne. Of course the governor could not yield and he organized his forces to meet those which Tecumseh was gathering.

It was not long before the Indians began to prowl through the Wabash Valley, plundering and murdering the settlers wherever there was a chance to do so. In order to secure the country and protect the inhabitants, Harrison ascended the river to Terre Haute, where he built a fort named for himself. He then advanced to Montezuma, erected a block-house and pushed for the town of the Prophet at the mouth of the Tippecanoe.

Within a few miles of the town, Harrison was met by a delegation which asked for a consultation to be held the next day. Governor Harrison could not refuse the request, but he was suspicious of treachery. He selected a piece of high ground whereon to encamp for the night. It was covered with oaks, and Burnet Creek skirted the encampment on the west. Beyond this stream and to the eastward of the oak grove, were prairie-marsh lands covered with tall grass.

The favorite time for the Indians to attack a foe is not at midnight but just before daybreak. At that hour, you know persons generally sleep soundly and the surprise is apt to be complete. A little before light, November 7th, the Indians burst upon Harrison and his troops with the fury of tigers. The whites, however, were not surprised. They



Indian Chiefs Council of War

INDIAN CHIEFS IN COUNCILS OF WAR

quickly put out their dimly burning camp-fires, so that the assailants could not have any advantage in that respect, and they fought with the coolness of border veterans. The Indians could not break the square in which the white men were formed, though they tried it furiously several times. When it became fully light, the soldiers charged the savages and scattered them in all directions. The loss was heavy on both sides—that of the whites being sixty killed and one hundred wounded.

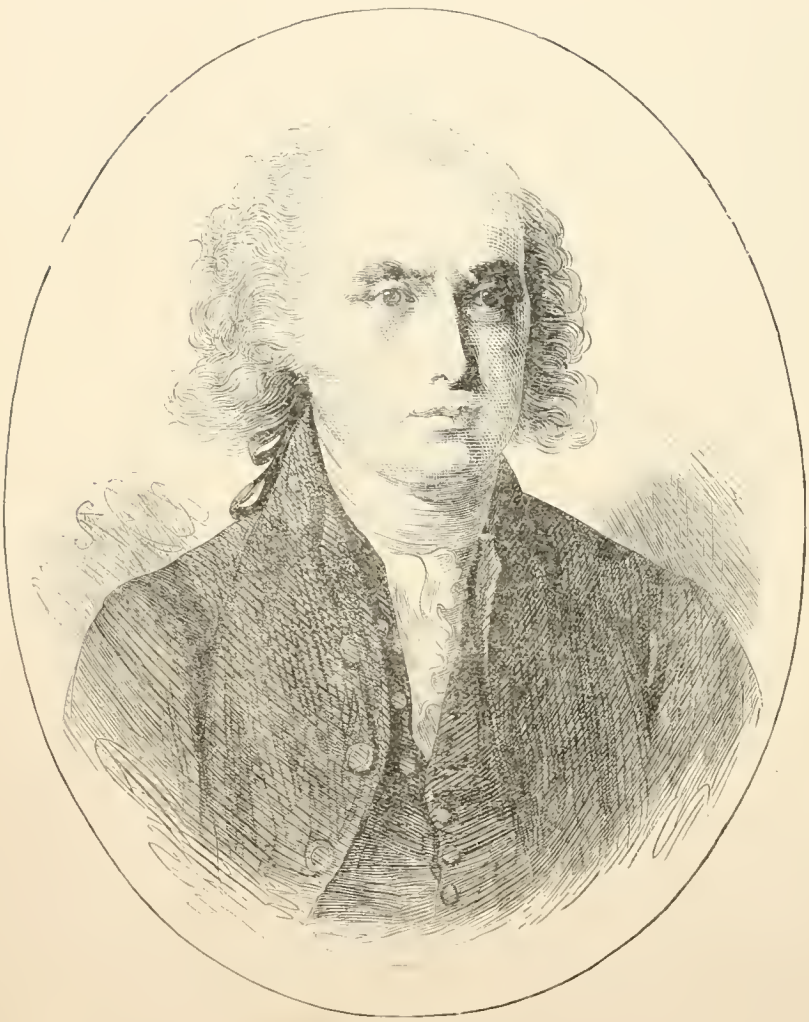
Harrison marched to the Prophet's town, which he burned, and then returned to Vincennes, the capital of the territory. This victory caused him to be popularly known in after years as "Old Tippecanoe." Tecumseh was absent in the south at the time the battle took place. On his return he was so disgusted with the way matters had gone that he went to Canada and joined the British.

The twelfth Congress of the United States assembled on the 4th of November, 1811. It contained some giants in ability, among whom were John C. Calhoun of South Carolina and Henry Clay of Kentucky. Although bitter rivals in their later years, they stood side by side at the opening of their career, in urging the president to hesitate no longer. Finally Madison yielded, and war was declared against England on the 19th of June, 1812.

CHAPTER XXIII.

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION. 1809–1817.

THE WAR OF 1812.



PRESIDENT MADISON.

SHOULD you like to know how the declaration of war was worded? Here is the text of the bill that passed both houses and was signed by the president:

"Be it enacted that war be, and the same is hereby declared, to exist between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the dependencies thereof, and the

United States of America and their territories; and that the President of the United States is authorized to use the whole land and naval force of the United States to carry the same into effect, and to issue to private armed vessels of the United States commissions, or letters of marque and general reprisal, in such form as he shall think proper, and under the seal of the United States, against the vessels, goods and effects of the government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the subjects thereof."

It is a sad fact that almost on the day we declared war England suspended the Orders of Council, so far as they affected this country. Had there been an Atlantic cable in those days, the war would not have taken place; but, as it was, the news did not reach this country in time to stop the hostilities that had begun.

You must not make the mistake of supposing that all the American people favored the war, although a large majority did. In many places there were illuminations, and New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore passed resolutions approving of the conduct of the government. In Baltimore a paper opposed to the war was mobbed. Indeed the riot was so violent in that city that several were killed, and General Richard Henry Lee, who commanded the military that put it down, received injuries from which he never recovered.

INDIAN CHILD IN CRADLE.

New England bitterly opposed the war, and the shipping in Boston hung their flags at half mast on the receipt of the news. The legislatures of Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Jersey protested against it, but the general enthusiasm swept away all opposition. Our regular army numbered six thousand men, but an increase was ordered to twenty-five thousand, in addition to the call for fifty thousand volunteers. At the same time, the states were asked to summon one hundred thousand militia for the defense of the coasts and harbors. A national loan of eleven millions was authorized, and Henry Dearborn of Massachusetts was appointed the first major-general and commander-in-chief of the army. He had gone with Arnold to Quebec in 1775, and had served in the campaign which ended in the capture of Burgoyne. Thomas Pinckney was made a major-general, the principal brigadiers being James Wilkinson, William Hull, Joseph Bloomfield and Wade Hampton. The last named was a son of the Revolutionary officer and father of the Confederate general of the same name.

Great Britain had been engaged so continuously in war that she was fully armed and equipped for the struggle. Her navy at that time numbered no less than a thousand and thirty-six vessels, of which two hundred and fifty-four were ships-of-the-line,

and not one carried less than seventy guns of large caliber. At the different stations on the American coast there were eighty-five English war vessels ready for action. Her navy was manned by one hundred and forty-four thousand sailors. Our country, with its puny navy of twenty large war vessels and a few gun-boats, might well shrink from meeting her enemy on the ocean. She had about concluded not to do so, when Captains Stewart and Bainbridge persuaded the authorities to do the best they could to combat the prodigious naval power of Great Britain.

The opening battle of the war was a shameful disgrace to American arms. General William Hull, who had served with distinction in the Revolution, was governor of Michigan Territory, and when war was declared was marching with some two thousand troops against the Indians. Being authorized to use his discretion, he decided to invade Canada, then divided into two provinces—Upper and Lower Canada. He crossed the border on the 12th of July to Sandwich, with the avowed purpose of capturing Malden, which ought to have been done with little difficulty. But Hull did nothing, while the forces opposed to him were rapidly increasing in number and strength. Fort Mackinaw, one of the strongest posts in the north-west, standing on an island near the Straits of Mackinaw, was surprised and taken by an allied force of British and Indians. Receiving intelligence that Major Brush, sent forward by Governor Meigs, of Ohio, was approaching with re-enforcements and supplies, Hull dispatched Major Thomas B. Van Horne with a detachment to conduct him to Detroit. Tecumseh, with the help of some British troops, had cut the lines of communication, and when near Brownstown laid an ambush for Van Horne's force, into which it marched and received a severe repulse.

Meanwhile, General Brock, the British commander-in-chief in Canada, reached Malden with a strong force. Lieutenant-colonel Miller was sent by Hull to re-open communication with the base of supplies at Raisin River. The Indians tried to lead him also into an ambuscade, but he routed them and drove them to their boats. The English lost fifty men and the Indians more than a hundred.

Still Hull did nothing, and learning that Brock was at Malden, he recrossed the river to Detroit. This retreat was made on the 7th of August, and two days later General Brock followed him, appearing before Detroit at the head of seven hundred British soldiers and six hundred Indians. He demanded the instant surrender of the place.

The fort at Detroit was held by the Fourth Regiment, by the Ohio volunteers, and by a part of the Michigan militia. They were so placed behind the pickets that the whole flank of the British force was exposed to their fire. The rest of the militia were posted in the town, and two four-pounders, loaded with grape, were planted on a hill from which they could have fired with great effect on the assailants. Besides, Colonels Cass and McArthur, who were out on an expedition with four hundred men, were on their return to Detroit, and were already close enough to attack the enemy in the rear. Thus, as you can easily see, the position of the Americans was very strong.

General Hull was a timid old man. He dreaded the ferocity of the Indians, whom General Brock assured him he should be unable to restrain in the event of Detroit being

carried by assault. Indeed, Hull had shown so much hesitation and timidity that his men were dissatisfied, and the field-officers resolved to arrest him. They did not do so, because Cass and McArthur were absent. Where there is such mutual distrust between the leader of an army and those under him, disaster is sure to follow.

The Americans were eager for battle, and those in the trenches outside the fort stood with lighted matches, awaiting the order to fire. The British steadily advanced until within five hundred yards, when both armies were astounded by seeing Hull run up a white flag above the fort. A brief parley followed, and the shameful surrender was completed. Not only the forces in Detroit, but every soldier under the command of Hull was surrendered, and the whole of Michigan Territory was given up to the British.

The American officers were so exasperated that they broke their swords, tore off their epaulets and stamped them on the ground.

The detachment under Cass and McArthur, and the troops at the river Raisin, thirty-six miles below Detroit, were included in the capitulation; but Captain Brush, commanding at Raisin, refused to be bound by Hull's agreement, and on being ordered to surrender, broke up his camp and withdrew toward Ohio.

The whole country was humiliated. Thirty prisoners were given in exchange for Hull, who was brought before a court-martial, charged with treason, cowardice and conduct unbecoming an officer. He was convicted on the last two charges and sentenced to be shot, but President Madison, having compassion on one who served so well during the Revolution, pardoned him. He lived under the contempt of his countrymen until his death in 1825. The year before he published a vindication of his conduct, and in 1848 his grandson printed a large volume giving, from official records, an account of the affair. You can not read these two works without feeling sympathy for the disgraced officer, whose dread of the cruelty of the Indians was distressing, partly because his own daughter was in the town with her children.

Nevertheless, it is always the case that no matter how flagrant the misconduct of a military man, and no matter how great the disaster it causes, he and his friends are ready with explanations and proofs that he was not only a skillful general but one of the purest patriots of his time. No explanations can ever be made that will justify the surrender of Detroit, and the time can never come when the act of General Hull can be considered any thing better than cowardice.

Many of you have been in the city of Chicago, now one of the largest and most enterprising cities on our continent. During the war of 1812, and for a considerable number of years after, no city was there at all. When Detroit surrendered, Fort Dearborn stood on the site of the city, and was occupied by Captain Nathan Heald, and fifty regulars. Receiving orders from General Hull to evacuate the fort and join him at Detroit, he attempted to obey, though warned by several scouts and friendly Indians that it was certain death to make the attempt. Afraid of treachery on the part of the large number of Indians around the fort, Captain Heald destroyed during the night the gunpowder, firearms and liquor which he had promised them. The exasperated savages waited till he was well on his way with the fifty soldiers and several families, and then attacked him. The women fought as bravely as the men. Twenty-six of the regular

troops, all the militia and a number of the women and children were killed. One of the savages leaped into a wagon containing twelve little ones and tomahawked them all. The next day Fort Dearborn was burned to the ground.

Such was the disastrous end of the first attempt to invade Canada, and the second was still worse.

The calamity at Detroit only roused the Americans to fresh efforts. Ten thousand volunteers offered themselves to the government. These were marched toward Michigan under General William Henry Harrison, "Old Tippecanoe," who commanded the

ATTACK OF INDIANS AT FORT DEARBORN.

army of the north-west including the detachments that had been Hull's. They were imperfectly disciplined, and, after a few movements against the Indians, went into winter quarters.

The troops on the Niagara frontier consisted of the New York militia, and a few regulars and recruits from other states under the command of Stephen Van Rensselaer. He determined to capture the Heights of Queenstown, and, on the morning of October 13th, sent two columns across the river. They were under the charge of Colonel Solomon Van Rensselaer, a cousin of the general, and a courageous leader. The Americans received a hot fire at the water's edge, among the wounded being Colonel Van Rensse-

laer. Captains Ogilvie and Wool led the troops to the assault and captured the fortress. General Brock with a re-enforcement of six hundred men assailed the Americans, but was repulsed, Brock himself being mortally wounded. The three commanders who succeeded him in turn were killed or badly wounded.

The Americans had fought bravely and they now began to entrench. The other division of the army, twelve hundred strong, on the American side of the river, was sent for and urged to join those on the Heights soon to be attacked. But the sights and sounds of the battle had so scared the New York militia that they refused to obey the

MONTREAL.

order. They made the excuse that they had enlisted for the defense of the state, and that they should not go out of it. It is doubtless true that such troops would not have crossed the frontier, unless they had learned that the enemy was entering the state.

Lieutenant-colonel Winfield Scott had passed the river and taken command of the brigade. While he was engaged in entrenching, he was assailed by a strong force of British and Indians. He twice repelled them with the bayonet, but other re-enforcements arriving, he was driven back toward the river. Reaching the edge of the bluff, they scrambled down the rocks and bushes to the water far below. But there were no

boats to take them across, and, finding themselves hemmed in, they surrendered. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was fully a thousand.

While the latter were fighting with such bravery during the afternoon, until finally compelled to give way, the twelve hundred New York militia stood on the other shore and looked on. Their cowardice so disgusted General Van Rensselaer that he resigned his command and General Alexander Smyth of Virginia succeeded him.

This officer celebrated his promotion by issuing two proclamations which in the way of bombast have never been surpassed. You would smile, could you read them. After declaring that he should soon plant his standards on the strongholds of Canada, he announced that after conquering the British dominions, he would annex them to the United States. Those who had commanded the army before him, he said, were wholly destitute of skill and experience in war. The "Army of the Center," as he called his militia, had now a general who would lead them to victory!

When a leader talks in that style, you may feel sure that he is either a coward or a fool, with the chances in favor of his being both. On the 28th of November, a company was sent across from Black Rock a few miles north of Buffalo. Instead of following with a stronger detachment, Smyth brought the advance party back. A few days later, another crossing was planned and the troops had actually embarked, when they were ordered to return and go into winter quarters. The militia threatened to revolt, and the conduct of Smyth was so inexcusable that he was finally deprived of his command.

This closes the account of the military operations of the year 1812. They were discouraging enough. We are apt sometimes to think that the Americans have proved themselves to be the bravest soldiers in the world, and that they never showed cowardice anywhere. You have only to read the history of the wars in which we have been engaged, however, in order to make up your mind that we have had now and then leaders as cowardly and incompetent among our officers and soldiers as other nations have had.

The story is a dismal one until we turn our attention to the ocean. There the exploits of the little American navy were such as to make your cheeks glow with pride. You know that Stewart and Bainbridge persuaded President Madison against the judgment of his cabinet to allow the American sailors and captains to show what they could do, and later they proved the wisdom of their counsel.

Within two hours after Commodore John Rodgers was notified that war had been declared against Great Britain, he had put to sea in the *President*, the same vessel that taught a valuable lesson to the British sloop of war *Little Belt*. There was one advantage that the American navy had over that of her enemy. Wherever one of our cruisers went she was almost sure to catch sight of the English vessels; that kind of game was so plentiful that it took little hunting to find it.

The British frigates and men-of-war, on the contrary, found it less easy to discover what they wanted. The Americans could, as a rule, run away from those that were too strong to capture, but I doubt whether there were any from which they wished to flee: they were too eager to fight.

A few days later the *President* caught sight of the frigate *Belvidere* and gave chase. She killed seven of the enemy's crew, but the vessel managed to escape. Rodgers lost

twenty-two men, but sixteen of them were slain by the bursting of a gun. He continued his cruise and captured a number of merchantmen and re-took an American prize.

About the middle of August, the frigate *Constitution*, commanded by Captain Isaac Hull; nephew of the general who disgraced himself at Detroit, came up with the British sloop-of-war *Guerriere*, off the coast of Massachusetts. For three-quarters of an hour the two maneuvered to get the advantage of position. The *Guerriere* was unable to do so and finally approached the *Constitution*, firing broadsides at intervals. When within half pistol shot, the *Constitution* poured a tremendous fire into the enemy, which swept her decks. In less than half an hour every mast of the Briton and almost every spar was shot away. She could do nothing but strike her flag, which she did, having lost seventy-nine killed and wounded, while the American had seven killed and the same number wounded.

The *Guerriere* was found to be such a wreck that she was blown up, and Hull sailed to Boston with his prisoners and spoils. As soon as it became known that Hull had won such a brilliant victory, the American's were wild with delight. All Boston cheered Hull when he landed. The city was gay with bunting, and a grand dinner was given in his honor. New York and Philadelphia were scarcely less demonstrative in their greeting. Had Captain Hull been nominated for the presidency, no doubt he would have been elected, that is if the election could have been held within a week after his arrival. Congress gave him a gold medal, and to his crew fifty thousand dollars.

The *Guerriere* was slightly the inferior of the *Constitution* in tonnage and carried thirty-eight guns to the Americans forty-four, but before such a battle, the British would have insisted that it was out of the question for the American to win. The defeat, therefore, was a cause of deep chagrin to England. The British could not admit that in any thing like an equal contest one of their frigates could be beaten. They were ready with all manner of excuses. One of the fairest of the British histories says that it was "suspected" that the American frigate carried seventy-four guns, instead of forty-four.

In the latter part of the same month, Commodore Stephen Decatur was cruising in the frigate *United States*. He captured a packet with a large sum of specie. He then engaged the frigate *Macedonian* in a fierce engagement lasting two hours. At the end of that time, while Decatur had lost but twelve men, his enemy had lost more than a hundred.

Decatur reached New York with his prize on New Year's day, 1813. His reception was as enthusiastic as that of Hull. When the exploits of the navy were so brilliant it was less humiliating to think of the defeats of the army.

Hull and Decatur having done so well, Bainbridge took his turn. Sailing from Boston, in October, in the *Constitution*, he sighted the frigate *Java*, off the coast of Brazil. A furious battle followed, lasting two hours. Every mast was torn from the British ship, and her hull burst with round shot. She had lost one hundred and twenty men, her captain being among the mortally wounded, when her flag was struck. The loss of the *Constitution* was only thirty-four. You must see that this was another proof

of the greater skill of the Americans in firing. The *Java* was blown up, and the prisoners and wounded taken on board the *Constitution*, which stood away for Boston. When Bainbridge and his brave fellows reached that city, you may be certain they had just as royal a welcome as did Hull some months before. The *Constitution* gained the name of "*Old Ironsides*," and was always looked upon as one of the "lucky" vessels of our navy.

During the same month that Bainbridge started out with the *Constitution* on her cruise, Captain Jacob Jones with the sloop-of-war *Wasp*, fell in with the brig *Frolic*. The fight was hot and bloody, the vessels being so close that the spars of the *Wasp* were shot away, and the hull of the *Frolic* was almost riddled. Grappling with each other, the Americans swarmed over upon the deck of the *Frolic*. They found only the man at the wheel and a couple of officers, who, of course, surrendered. Every one else had gone below.

The *Wasp* had lost but ten men, while on the *Frolic* there were not twenty that were unhurt. It was not long, however, before the British man-of-war *Poictiers* bore down and captured both vessels.

The truth was the Americans had put sights on their guns a short time before, while the British had not yet done so. Hence, our people fired with a great deal more accuracy than did the enemy. It would be idle to claim that our sailors were any more skillful and brave than the English. Both belonged to the same race, spoke the same language and were equally courageous and devoted to their country.

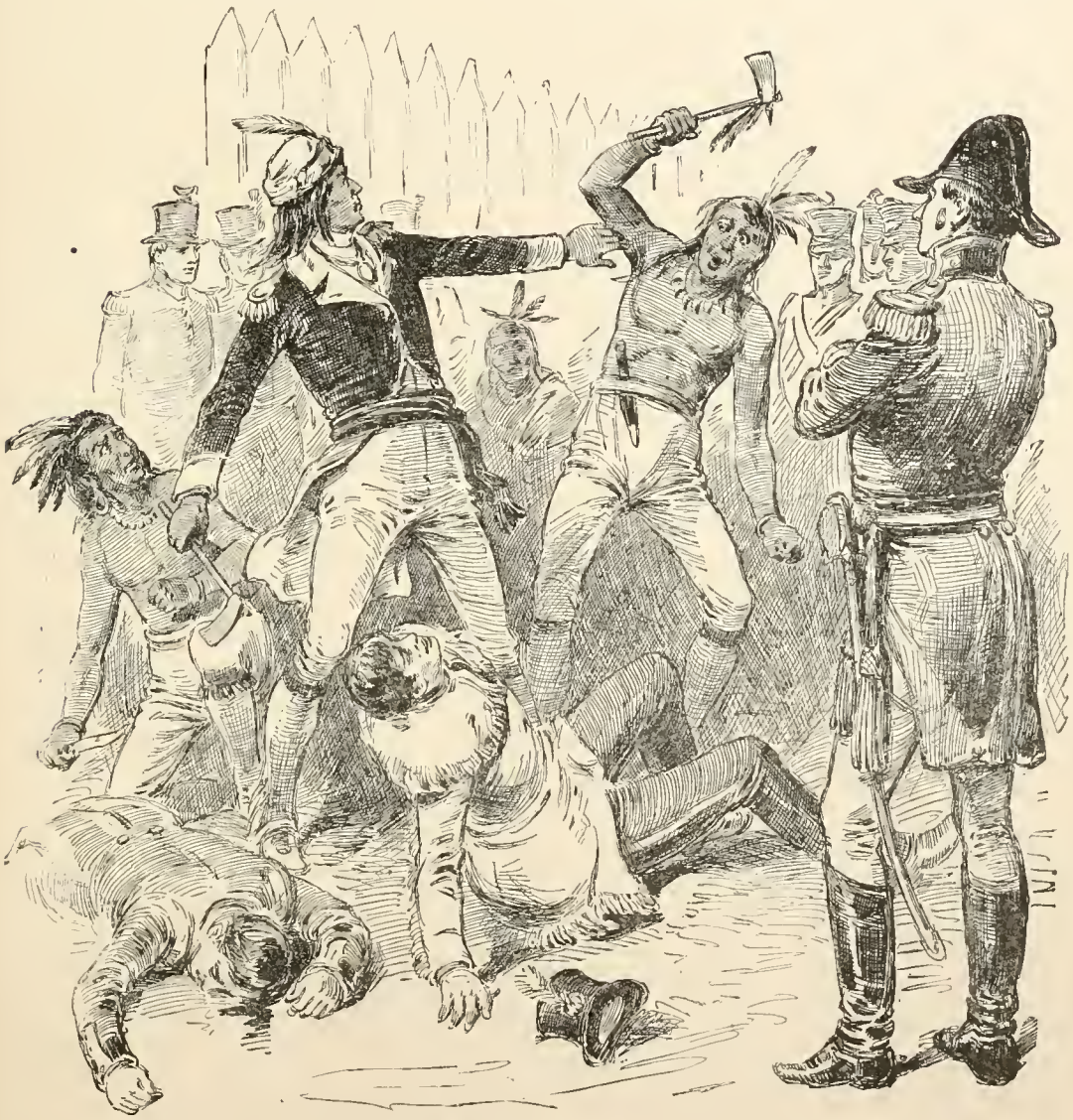
Thus during the first six months of the war we gained great triumphs on the sea, so great indeed that England was chagrined and exasperated. Her papers declared that the flag of Great Britain had been disgraced "by a piece of striped bunting flying at the mast-heads of a few fir-built frigates, manned by a handful of outlaws."

Just after the war was fairly under way, the presidential election took place in the autumn of 1812. There was some opposition to Madison, but he was re-elected by a majority that proved the people of the United States were strongly in favor of the war. Eldridge Gerry became vice-president in place of George Clinton, who had died just before.

The administration had a good working majority in Congress. Madison stated in his message that, during the recess, the British had offered an armistice, alleging the repeal of the Orders of Council as a reason for coming to terms; but that, as they would not make any provisions against the impressment of seamen, the offer had been rejected. Congress, in the face of some opposition, passed resolutions approving this course, and measures were taken for strengthening and more fully organizing the army. The bounty and pay of the soldiers were increased; the president was authorized to raise twenty additional regiments of infantry, to issue treasury-notes and to borrow money; and provision was made for building four ships-of-the-line, six frigates and as many vessels-of-war on the Great Lakes as might be needed. The American army was organized in three divisions: the Army of the North, commanded by General Wade Hampton, to operate in the country about Lake Champlain; the Army of the Center, under direction of the commander-in-chief, General Henry Dearborn, to resume offensive movements on the

Niagara frontier and Lake Ontario; and the Army of the West, under General Winchester, who was soon superseded by General Harrison.

I have told you that the last named general marched toward Michigan to recover it from the British, to whom, as you know, it was surrendered by Hull. The Americans



TECUMSEH'S REBUKE OF PROCTOR.

were so eager to carry on the war that they would not remain idle during the winter, even though the weather was severe. General Winchester was ordered to advance to Frenchtown, a village on the river Raisin, twenty-five miles south of Detroit. At the head of eight hundred volunteers, mostly Kentuckians, Winchester reached the Maumee Rapids, January 10, 1813. Three days later he sent a small body of troops

under Colonels Allen and Lewis, against the British and Indians gathered at Frenchtown. The place was attacked on the 18th, and Winchester arrived with re-enforcements on the 20th.

But Colonel Henry Proctor was at Malden, eighteen miles away, with fifteen hundred British and Indians. Hurrying to Frenchtown, he assailed the Americans, on the morning of the 22d of January, surprising and routing them. Winchester was taken prisoner, and Proctor so wrought upon his fears by threats of an irrestrainable slaughter by the Indians, that Winchester, under a solemn pledge of protection, sent word to Colonel Madison, his successor, to surrender. It was precisely the same fear that led General Hull to yield when there was no need of doing so.

Colonel Madison did as ordered. Then Colonel Proctor was guilty of a piece of treachery which must forever stain his name. The surrender was hardly made before he set off at a rapid rate toward Malden, under the pretense that he feared the advance of General Harrison, who was on the Lower Sandusky. He left the American wounded behind. The Indians thus had no restraining force, and immediately fell upon the hapless captives, tomahawking, scalping, and, in many instances, torturing them to death. Those not slain were dragged to Detroit, where, after a time, they were ransomed at great cost.

Learning of the disaster, General Harrison fell back from the Maumee Rapids, but advanced again with twelve hundred men, and built Fort Meigs on the right bank of the river. This post was nearly opposite one formerly occupied by the British, and not far from the present town of Perrysburg. It was selected as a convenient point for receiving re-enforcements and supplies from Ohio and Kentucky, for protecting the borders of Lake Erie, and for helping the proposed movement for the recapture of Detroit and the invasion of Canada.

Harrison remained several weeks without disturbance, but on the 26th of April, Colonel Proctor and Tecumseh, with two thousand regulars, militia and Indians, laid siege to the works with the usual threat of Indian massacre in case of resistance. General Harrison was not the one to be frightened by such threats. Indeed, he might have said with much truth that massacre awaited them in case of surrender just as surely as if the place should be captured after a siege. His answer to Proctor was defiant, and General Green Clay Smith hurried forward to his relief with twelve hundred Kentuckians. He attacked the besiegers, while a successful rally was made at the same time by the garrison. But for an unfortunate blunder of Colonel Dudley, whose detachment was cut off and captured, the British would have been routed. As it was, they were so roughly handled that Proctor was compelled to raise the siege.

Some of the American troops, in the ardor of victory, scattered through the woods to hunt Indians. They were warned against exposing themselves to such peril, and, as might have been foretold, were ambushed and captured in a body. As usual, the Indians began the work of massacre, when Tecumseh burst like a thunderbolt among his warriors, hurling them right and left. Turning fiercely upon Proctor he demanded why he permitted such outrages. The British officer said he could not restrain the Indians.

"Go and put on petticoats!" roared the chief; "you are not fit to command men!"

The Indians became so dissatisfied with their allies that large numbers withdrew, despite the entreaties of their chief. The British having withdrawn, General Harrison went to Kentucky for re-enforcements, leaving Smith in command.

A lull now followed, and it was not until the 21st of July that Proctor and Tecumseh with about five thousand British and Indians appeared again before Fort Meigs. The British leader maneuvered and beat about the woods in the hope of drawing out the garrison, but failing to do so, left Tecumseh and about half of the force to see whether they could fix up any scheme to outwit the defenders. Proctor with the rest marched against Fort Stephenson on the Sandusky, where Fremont now stands. The defense of this post was one of the most remarkable incidents in the history of our country.

The garrison numbered one hundred and sixty, under the command of Major George Croghan, a stripling barely twenty-one years of age. Proctor ordered him to surrender, threatening that if he refused, the garrison would be tomahawked by the savages. Young Croghan replied that when the garrison surrendered, there would not be a man left to tomahawk.

After a sharp bombardment, the British advanced against the fort. Croghan had but a single cannon, which he loaded to the muzzle with slugs and pieces of iron. He took care also to keep it masked from the enemy. He placed it so that it could rake the long ditch on the north in which the British and Indians were sure to enter.

As expected, the assailing party sprang into this ditch and were rushing along with oaths and threats of massacre, when the masked gun was discharged. It did fearful execution. Croghan reloaded it without delay, and soon another column entered the ditch. The deadly hail again swept the ditch. The rest of the storming party were repelled by a hot fire of musketry, and Colonel Proctor, afraid of the approach of Harrison, withdrew from the neighborhood.

It was resolved to fit out a squadron on Lake Ontario, which should be invincible against any thing the British might bring against it, and at the same time be able to carry from point to point forces to oppose the English. The chief American port on that large body of water was Sackett's Harbor, near the outlet. This was fixed upon as the naval depot, and for several months toward the close of 1812 and the beginning of 1813, Commodore Chauncey wrought hard to launch the needed squadron.

In the latter part of April, General Dearborn crossed the lake at the head of seventeen hundred men, meaning to attack York (now Toronto), the capital of Upper Canada and the principal military depot for the western garrisons. The Americans landed on the beach before York on the 27th of April. They were received with a sharp fire, but General Zebulon Pike, at the head of the Americans, drove the enemy from his works. Two redoubts were taken and the victors were pushing forward toward the main work, when the magazine of the fort blew up. A large stone struck General Pike in the breast, and two hundred others were killed and wounded. The general was taken on board the commodore's ship, where he lived but a short time; long enough, however, to have the flag which had floated above the fort placed beneath his head.

General Dearbron, who stayed with the fleet during the action, landed soon after the

fall of Pike, and awaiting the surrender of the town, assumed immediate command. Most of the British troops escaped, but their flight was so hurried that they were not able to take any of their baggage with them.

The American fleet went to Niagara, and, after landing troops, returned to Sackett's Harbor. On the way, Dearborn and his force disembarked near the mouth of the Niagara River. There they waited several weeks, until Commodore Chauncey arrived with re-enforcements, when Fort George was taken.

These operations at the western end of the lake left Sackett's Harbor with little protection. Sir James Yeo, the British admiral, and General Prevost, the British commander, seeing their opportunity, moved against Sackett's Harbor. Colonel Electus Backus, commanding the post, appealed to General Jacob Brown, a militia officer in that section, who quickly gathered a small force of militia and added them to the garrison.

The British vessels landed a body of Indians in the night, that they might attack the American rear, and on the 29th an attack was made in front. The militia scattered, but the regulars and volunteers held their ground until forced back by weight of numbers. Then they took shelter in their log barracks. Meanwhile General Brown had rallied a few of the militia and made a move as if to seize the boats of the British. General Prevost, fearful that his escape would be cut off, ordered a retreat, which quickly became a panic. Nearly three hundred dead and wounded were left behind.

On the side of the Americans the loss was heavy. Colonels Mills and Backus were slain and a hundred and thirty killed and wounded. In the flurry, Lieutenant Chauncy, of the American army, caused the destruction of a half a million dollars worth of stores.

The garrison of Fort George fled to Burlington Heights on the 27th of May. This point is at the western extremity of Lake Ontario. The enemy was followed by a large force of Americans under Generals Chandler and Winder. The different garrisons in that part of the country were concentrated forty miles west of Fort George, where they made a spirited resistance to the American advance. In the engagement which followed, both the American generals were captured. Sir James Yeo arriving shortly after with the British fleet, the American force was compelled to retreat to the main body of the American army.

It was not long after this that nearly eight hundred Americans, while making an attack on Beaver Dams, were surrounded and taken. A number of small actions followed. York was captured a second time, and as the autumn advanced, the British found themselves with a large and powerful squadron at command.

There was much dissatisfaction with General Dearborn, the head of the army. He was an invalid, had never once led his troops in person, and had let pass the best chance of making a descent on Montreal. Accordingly, he was relieved in June, and General Wilkinson was called from the South to take his place. He arrived at Sackett's Harbor on the 1st of August, where in consultation with General Armstrong, he began preparations for an invasion of Canada. The plan was to attack Montreal with eight thousand men.

It took three months to get every thing ready for such an expedition, during which,

as a matter-of-course, the enemy was not idle. Every important point on the St. Lawrence was fortified. The flotilla set sail on the 5th of November, but soon met with serious resistance. General Brown, therefore, was set on shore with a body of troops, who, marching in advance of the boats, sought to dislodge the enemy from his different positions along the river. Near Williamsburg, the rear division collided,

CAPTAIN (AFTERWARD SIR PHILIP) BROKE. (*From a portrait published in* 1815.)

on the 10th of November, with a large British force, and defeated it. The stream was thus re-opened for the passage of the flotilla.

General Wilkinson reached St. Regis the next day, where General Hampton was to co-operate with him. That officer, however, was prevented from doing so by the sickness and lack of provisions among his troops, and he had fallen back to Plattsburg, hoping to be able to keep his communications with the St. Lawrence. This retrograde movement made it necessary for Wilkinson to retreat, and the enterprise was given up

for the time. There was much bickering among Hampton, Wilkinson and Armstrong

As the war progressed, it grew more savage and ruthless. A British squadron entered Delaware Bay and burned every merchant vessel that could be seized. The inhabitants of Lewiston refused to sell food to the enemy, which retaliated by bombarding them. In Chesapeake Bay, Admiral Cockburn plundered private houses along shore. Frenchtown, Havre-de-Grace, Fredericktown, Georgetown and other places were sacked and burned. The conduct of Cockburn was so brutal that many people in England declared that he was a disgrace to their navy. Yet when he went back home, he was received with great honors and was finally promoted to the highest rank. It was he who took Napoleon Bonaparte to St. Helena as a prisoner.

Commodore Hardy commanded the English squadron operating off the New England coast. He was very generous and forbearing, but no doubt the chief reason for such tenderness, was the fact that the New Englanders were opposed to the war. Indeed their leaders talked strongly about refusing to take any part in it.

The successes of the Americans throughout the year 1813, like those of the preceding year, were mainly confined to the water. The actions on land were so indecisive that they are hardly worth the space I have given them. But Great Britain, and indeed the world, was astounded by the exploits of the Yankee navy, whose victories were numerous and its defeats few.

On the 24th of February, 1813, Captain Lawrence of the sloop-of-war *Hornet* fell in with the English brig-of-war *Peacock*, off the coast of British Guiana, and in fifteen minutes compelled her to strike her colors and hoist a signal of distress, she being in a sinking condition. Indeed she sank so suddenly that thirteen of the English sailors and four of the *Hornet's* crew, who were giving aid, sank with her. Captain Lawrence showed such kindness toward the officers and crew of the *Peacock* that upon reaching New York they sent him a letter of thanks. His exploit led to his promotion to the command of the frigate *Chesapeake*, then refitting in the harbor of Boston. The British frigate *Shannon*, commanded by Captain Broke, had been cruising for some time off the coast and Broke dared Lawrence to come out and fight him.

Lawrence was foolish enough to accept the challenge. You will admit his foolishness when you learn all the facts. In the first place, his ship was not yet ready for sea, while the *Shannon* was in perfect trim with her large crew well disciplined. The Americans were in a mutinous frame of mind, because a good sum of prize money promised them was held back. It is said further that just before the *Chesapeake* put to sea, most of the American sailors were under the influence of liquor.

The *Chesapeake* sailed on the 1st of June. It must have been a singular sight to see following the frigate numerous barges and pleasure boats all swarming with passengers eager to witness the naval fight which they were sure would result in the defeat of the defiant Briton. Could you have looked upon Boston Bay at that time you would have thought that some international yacht-race was taking place instead of a desperate battle in which many were to fall and the decks of both vessels were to run with blood.

There were hundreds on the high hills along the coast, some with glasses in hand

Perry's Victory—Battle of Lake Erie

BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE—PERRY'S VICTORY

intently watching the hostile vessels, as they approached each other. Whatever misgiving Captain Lawrence may have felt in comparing his ship and crew with those of his enemy, he would have been blamed had he declined the challenge, and failed to make the best fight possible for his flag.

The *Shannon* opened as soon as the *Chesapeake* was within range, but the latter waited until she could make her broadside effective. Then the battle raged with great fury. Within ten minutes the rigging of the *Chesapeake* was so injured that she became unmanageable and was exposed to a raking fire. Captain Lawrence was twice wounded, the last time mortally, and was carried below as the British sailors were making ready to board. When asked whether the colors should be struck he replied, "No; they shall not be struck while I live; tell the men to fire faster; don't give up the ship!"

Boarders were called for on the *Chesapeake*, but in the poor state of discipline, before they could be brought to quarters, the British sailors swarmed over the deck and began firing down the hatchways. Within fifteen minutes after the fight opened, the *Chesapeake* was captured by the *Shannon*. In that brief space, forty-eight men were killed and ninety-eight wounded on the American and twenty-three killed and fifty-six wounded on the Briton. Not only was Captain Lawrence killed, but Lieutenant Ludlow, the second in command, was slain. Lawrence became frantic from his bodily and mental suffering. He lived four days, and in his delirium often called out, "*Don't give up the ship!*" These words have since served as a motto hundreds of times to our valiant sailors when going into action. Lawrence was a brave and able officer who entered the navy when only seventeen years old. He took part in the destruction of the *Philadelphia*, of which you read in the account of the war with Tripoli. His body and that of Ludlow were taken to Halifax, Nova Scotia, and buried with the honors of war. Some of the oldest captains in the British navy acted as pall-bearers, and his worth was acknowledged by none more than our enemies.

This disaster spread great gloom through the United States, and corresponding rejoicing in England, where they needed some victory of the kind after their long series of disasters. I am sorry to say that they received several such crumbs of comfort. On the very day of the capture of the *Chesapeake*, Decatur, in command of the *United States*, *Macedonian* and *Hornet* was chased into New London by a powerful British squadron. Not only that, but he was forced to stay there until the close of the war. This sorely chafed Decatur, who was so fond of fighting. He made many attempts to get to sea, and complained that every time he tried it he was defeated by traitors on shore, who by means of burning blue lights warned the blockading squadron, which of course was on the alert.

Much feeling was caused by this declaration of Decatur and his officers. No doubt such betrayal was made, but it is not likely the offenders were numerous. Partisan feeling ran high at that time, and the federal party was given the name of "Blue Lights." Connecticut has often been taunted since for her disloyal course during the war of 1812.

For two months Captain Allan with the brig *Argus* caused much destruction to the English shipping in the English Channel. A number of vessels were sent after him,

and on the 14th of August he surrendered to the *Pelican*. Shortly after, the brig *Enterprise*, cruising off the coast of Maine, captured the British *Boxer*. The fight was a severe one, and both commanders were killed, and were buried side by side in Portland.

It was during this year, however, that the American navy gained one of the grandest triumphs in its history. During the month in which the *Chesapeake* was lost, Captain Oliver Hazard Perry was in command of the squadron at Presq' Isle (now Erie). He was a native of Newport, Rhode Island, was less than thirty years of age, and had never commanded in battle. By the month of August he was ready for action, with a squadron of ten vessels and fifty-five guns, with which he started to look for Commodore Barclay and his six vessels and sixty-three guns. On the 10th of September, the squadrons met at the western end of Lake Erie. The action had hardly opened when Perry's flag-ship, the *Lawrence*, was detached from the rest and so furiously assailed by the *Detroit* (Barclay's flag-ship), that in two hours she was reduced to a sinking condition. Leaving her in charge of Lieutenant Yarnell, Perry embarked in a small boat, and passing within pistol shot of the *Detroit* and exposed to a hot fire, boarded the *Niagara*, where his flag was hoisted. This inspired the Americans and the battle was waged with great vigor. While the British squadron was trying to form a new line of battle, some confusion resulted and Perry started the *Niagara* through the fleet, delivering broadsides right and left. The rest of his vessels hurried to his assistance, and poured such a raking fire into the British ships that in fifteen minutes they were helpless. By four o'clock in the afternoon every English vessel had surrendered.

You will see how much superior the firing of the Americans was when you know that they lost only twenty-seven killed and ninety-six wounded, while the British had two hundred killed and wounded and six hundred were taken prisoners. The loss of the British officers was very heavy. Commodore Barclay had but one arm when he entered the battle and during the engagement he lost the other.

This victory gave Perry immortal fame. When he was forming his line of battle, he ran up a flag bearing the heroic words of Lawrence (who had been killed only a short time before), "Don't give up the ship!" In sending news of the victory to General Harrison, he did so by means of a dispatch that has become as famous as the dying words of Lawrence—"We have met the enemy and they are ours. Two ships, two brigs, one schooner and one sloop."

This was not only the first victory gained by an American squadron over one of an enemy, but, aside from the thrill of enthusiasm which it awakened through the country, it had an important bearing on the war. Both Proctor and Harrison were awaiting the result. If Perry should be defeated, Proctor would invade Ohio; if he should win, Harrison would enter Canada, with every prospect of victory.

The way being opened, Harrison's army was embarked at Sandusky Bay on the 27th of September and landed near Malden. The British fell back to Sandwich, the Americans following close. Proctor made all haste to the Thames, where, near the Moravian Towns, he turned at bay. He chose a good battle field, with his lines extending from river to swamp. Here, on the 5th of October, he was attacked by General Harrison and General Shelby, governor of Kentucky. Proctor fled like a coward, but his

THE CHESAPEAKE GOING INTO ACTION.

regulars showed great bravery and were broken only when Colonel Richard M. Johnson and his Kentuckians swept down upon them.

Having scattered the regulars, Johnson wheeled and attacked the fifteen hundred Indians crouching in the swamp. Under the leadership of Tecumseh, they fought with unusual heroism. But it was not long before the ringing voice of the war chief was hushed in death. The red men seeing their leader fall, broke and fled in the wildest panic. The victory could not have been more complete. The Indian confederacy was shattered. Ohio was freed from all danger of invasion, and that which Hull had given away was retaken. The victory was far-reaching and beyond value.

For many years after the battle of the Thames, as it was called, the question of who killed Tecumseh was one of public discussion. Colonel Dick Johnson, as the Kentuckian was popularly known, was generally given the credit of the exploit, and I remember the thousands of pictures which showed him springing to his feet just as his wounded horse had fallen, and discharging his pistol at the mighty Shawnee, as he rushed upon him with upraised tomahawk. When Johnson ran for vice-president, the most was made of this incident. Johnson himself never claimed to have killed Tecumseh. "I remember that an Indian who seemed to be a leader," said he, "dashed at me with a tomahawk. I didn't ask him to tell me his name, but fired, and he dropped."

You may be interested to know that Perry did other good service during the war of 1812. In 1819, while cruising on the South American coast, he caught the yellow fever and died at the hour his vessel arrived at Port Spain, on the island of Trinidad.

There was trouble with the Creek Indians in the South. I told you about the visit of Tecumseh to that tribe. Their old men were opposed to a war, but the chieftain's fiery eloquence roused the younger ones, and they went into the struggle with the ferocity of their race.

The militia of the South-west were called out to meet the danger. A large number of the inhabitants took refuge in a stockade known as Fort Mimms, on Lake Tensas, and Governor Claiborne sent one hundred and seventy-five volunteers to its defense. They were warned to be on their guard, but when on the 30th of August, a thousand Creeks appeared before the place, the garrison had no sentinels on duty, their guns were stacked, and the outer gate was invitingly open. The defenders made desperate resistance, but it was in vain. Every woman, child, and all the garrison except twelve, were massacred. It was a frightful crime, but the Creeks were made to pay well for it, as you shall now learn.

CHAPTER XXIV.

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION. 1809–1817.

THE WAR OF 1812. (Concluded.)

TENNESSEE acted promptly against the Creeks. She appropriated three hundred thousand dollars, and placed five thousand men under the command of General Andrew Jackson. Jackson was a man of iron will and dauntless courage, and the turbulent men under him were those who were accustomed to Indian fighting. Among them were Sam Houston and Colonel Davy Crockett, both of whom afterward became so famous.

Jackson went at the business as he went at anything he believed to be his duty; he was resolute, and almost merciless. He hunted down the Indians as if they were mad dogs, burned their villages wherever he could find them, and pressed them night and day. They were first brought to bay at Talluschatches (now Jacksonville, Alabama), where they were assailed by a thousand mounted men, under Colonel John Coffee. The Indians asked no quarter, probably knowing they would receive none. Not a warrior was spared, the only prisoners taken being the squaws and children.

The last stand was made in a fortified camp at the Great Horseshoe Bend of the Tallapoosa River, in the present state of Alabama, where a thousand warriors, with their wives and children, determined to stake all on the issue. Jackson surrounded them and made his assault on the 27th of March, 1814. The Indians fought with the fiercest bravery, but there was no hope for them. At night, when the battle ended, six hundred of the savages lay dead, and three hundred had fled. The loss of the Americans, too, was heavy, but the spirit of the Creeks was completely crushed.

General Jackson was sitting in his tent shortly after this battle, planning a further campaign against the Indians, when William Weathersford, the great half-breed leader of the Creeks, entered. He commanded the savages at the massacre of Fort Mimms. He had escaped from the recent overwhelming defeat, but he saw that his tribe was doomed. General Jackson would have given a great deal to have had him shot, and he was amazed to see the chieftain standing defiant before him.

"I am in your power," said Weathersford; "do with me as you please; I have done the white people all the harm I could; I have fought them and fought them bravely; there was a time when I had a choice; I have none now, even hope is ended. Once I could animate my warriors; but I can not animate the dead. They can no longer hear my voice; their bones are at Talluschatches, Talladega, Emucfau and Tohopeka. While there was a chance of success, I never supplicated peace; but my people are gone, and I now ask it for my nation and myself." Peace was soon made on the terms dictated by the whites.

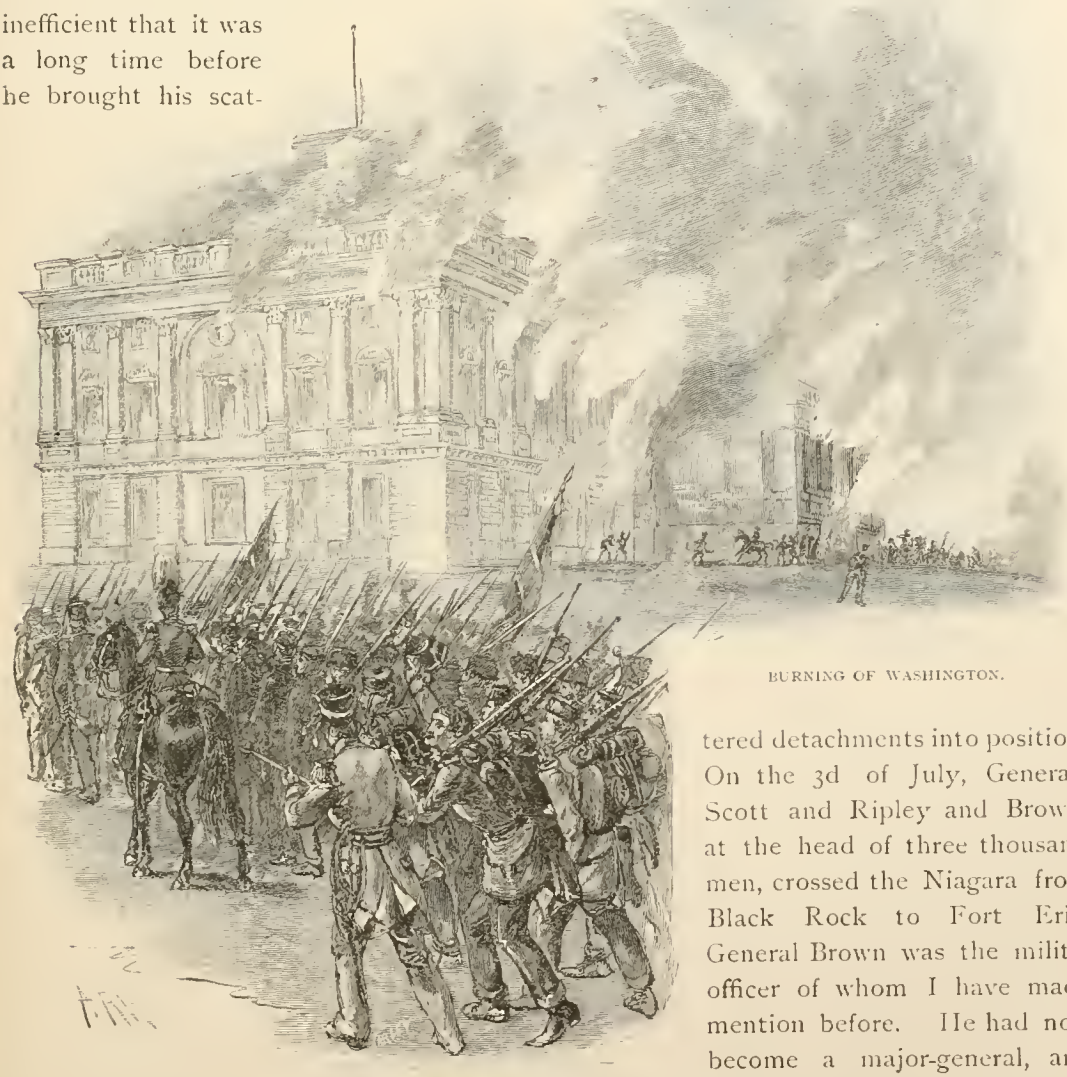
The year 1814 opened with a gloomy prospect to the Americans. The great Napoleon had been crushed, and England was now at liberty to send veteran legions against our country. But the Americans did not shrink from the hard task before them.

WEATHERSFORD AND GENERAL JACKSON.

The president was authorized to borrow twenty-five million dollars, and to issue treasury notes to the amount of five millions. The credit of the government, however, was so poor that these notes dropped to seventeen per cent. below par. One hundred and twenty-four dollars was offered as a bounty for each recruit, and the pay, rations and clothing of the troops were settled on a generous scale. It was ordered that the regular

army should be increased to sixty-six thousand men, the bounty I have named to be given those who enlisted for five years. An embargo laid with a view of stopping trade under British licenses was repealed in April, 1814, and the Americans felt themselves in the strongest possible condition to meet the attacks of the enemy.

The campaigns of 1814 included the invasion of Canada, the Niagara frontier being the scene of operations. General Wilkinson was so slow and inefficient that it was a long time before he brought his scattered detachments into position. On the 3d of July, Generals Scott and Ripley and Brown, at the head of three thousand men, crossed the Niagara from Black Rock to Fort Erie. General Brown was the militia officer of whom I have made mention before. He had now become a major-general, and proved to be possessed of such skill that I may as well tell you in this place, that directly after the close of the war he was promoted to the highest position in the United States army, and held that rank



BURNING OF WASHINGTON.

until 1828. He received a gold medal and the thanks of Congress. Brownsville in New York was named for him.

Fort Erie was garrisoned by two hundred British, who surrendered to General Brown without a battle. Brown then gave pursuit to a British corps of observation, which he chased down the river till it crossed Chippewa Creek and joined the main body. The American advance fell back across Street's Creek, where it was soon joined by the main body. That afternoon, while Scott was making ready for a dress-parade, Brown, galloping in from the front, called to him that he would soon have a battle. Riding past, Brown brought up Ripley's brigade.

A few minutes later, the British, hidden by the woods that lined the creek Scott was approaching, opened fire. The battle that followed was severe, and took place in the dusk of early evening. General Riall, the British commander, was routed, with the loss of more than five hundred men, while that of the Americans was three hundred and thirty-eight. Riall sent part of his troops to the forts at the mouth of the Niagara, retreating with the rest to Burlington Heights. His Indian allies were so disgusted, not only with the defeat of the British, but with the hard fighting, that they all left.

Thus you see the invasion of Canada opened with much promise for the Americans. Brown decided to move upon Kingston, counting upon the help of the fleet of Commodore Chauncey. He urgently appealed to that officer, but Chauncey did not stir. He was much less courageous than General Brown. The latter could do nothing without the help of the fleet, and, learning that Riall was at Queenstown, where he was re-enforced by General Drummond from York, Brown was forced to fall back.

General Scott, commanding the American right, was sent forward to watch the movements of the enemy. On the evening of the 25th of July, as he emerged into an open space to the south of Lundy's Lane (which runs at right angles to the river, and is close to Niagara Falls), Scott found himself face to face with Riall's army, strongly posted on the high ground, in sight of the falls.

The position of Scott was so perilous that almost any officer would have withdrawn, but he prepared to hold his ground until the main body could come up. He handled his men with such skill that he not only remained firm after the British reserves were brought into action, but captured General Riall and his entire staff. They soon effected their escape, however.

The fight had continued about an hour when General Brown came up with the rest of the army. His keen eye saw at once that victory could not be made complete so long as a battery of seven guns kept its place on a hill near the enemy's center.

Calling Colonel James Miller to his side, and, pointing to the hill, General Brown said:

"Colonel, take your regiment and capture that battery!"

"I'll try," was the answer, and a few minutes later he and his brave men were in motion. In the darkness, they were able to take advantage of a fence, under whose shadow they crept forward, without discovery, until close upon the battery. They saw the gunners standing with lighted matches awaiting the order to fire. Obeying the

whispered command, the Americans softly pushed the muzzles of their guns between the rails, shot down every gunner, and then, springing to their feet, bounded over the fence and secured the battery, despite the hot infantry fire to which they were subjected. The British made three attempts to retake it, but were repulsed each time. In the last charge, General Drummond, who led it, was wounded. The British army, numbering fully five thousand, was driven from the field with a loss of eight hundred and seventy-eight men. The Americans who took part in the battle numbered about four thousand, and their loss in killed, wounded and missing was more than eight hundred.

The battle of Lundy's Lane, as it is generally called, was the severest of the war. You will notice from the figures I have given that about one-fifth of the soldiers on each side were wounded or killed. General Scott himself was so badly injured that he could take no further part in the war. General Brown was also wounded, though not so severely as Scott. The command devolved upon General Ripley who, as a step of prudence, fell back to Fort Erie. Very foolishly, he left behind the guns that had been captured by Colonel Miller, and of course the enemy recovered them. For this and other negligence, the command was taken from him and given to General E. P. Gaines, until General Brown should be able to resume charge.

General Drummond soon received re-enforcements, and on the 4th of August invested Fort Erie. He made an assault on the night of the 14th, but was repulsed with the loss of a thousand men. Then the opposing forces bombarded each other for several days. Gaines was badly hurt by an exploding shell, and, though General Brown was still suffering from his wound, he took active command. On the 17th of September, a sortie was ordered and the advanced works of the English were carried. Just then news arrived that General Izard was advancing from Plattsburg with re-enforcements for the Americans. This so alarmed the British that they raised the siege and retreated to Fort George. The Americans evacuated Fort Erie on the 5th of November, destroyed the works, and then recrossing the Niagara, went into winter quarters at Black Rock and Ontario. This ended the military operations in the country between lakes Erie and Ontario.

Let us now see what was going on in other quarters. The army of the North, as it was called, spent the winter of 1813–14 at French Mills, afterward named Fort Covington. General Wilkinson, in the latter part of February, advanced to Plattsburg and invaded Canada during the following month. He attacked an English force stationed in a large stone mill on the River La Colle, but was repulsed with heavy loss. General Wilkinson by this time had fallen very much in public esteem and was removed, General Izard taking his place. I have already told you how General Izard marched with five thousand men to the help of General Brown at Fort Erie. Plattsburg being thus left defenseless, the British decided to attack it by land, and at the same time destroy the American flotilla on Lake Champlain.

Sir George Prevost, at the head of 14,000 men, entered the United States on the 3d of September. Most of these soldiers had been trained in the wars of Europe, and had helped to conquer Napoleon Bonaparte, the greatest military genius of modern times.

Three days later this formidable force reached Plattsburg, situated near Lake Champlain, on the northern bank of the Saranac River.

The men who composed the garrison were quite as brave as those who were marching against them, but they were inferior in training. They were mainly New York and Vermont militia, hurriedly brought together by General Macomb on the first alarm of the invasion. They withdrew to the south side of the Saranac and made ready to dispute the passage of the stream. The planks of the bridges, when torn up, furnished rude breastworks from behind which they defeated every attempt of the invaders to pass.

On the 11th of September the British squadron, commanded by Commodore Downie, appeared off the harbor of Plattsburg, in which lay the American squadron under Commodore Macdonough. The latter had eighty-six guns and eight hundred and twenty men, while the British commodore had ninety-five guns and more than a thousand men, besides two more barges than the Americans.

A naval engagement began at nine o'clock in the morning, and a heavy cannonade was opened on the American lines, while the British made repeated attempts to cross the Saranac, but were driven back. At one point they forced their way through the militia, but were handled so roughly that they were compelled to recross. Before sunset all the British batteries were silenced, and long before that time the Americans had gained a naval victory.

The battle on the water lasted two hours and twenty minutes. Commodore Downie was killed, his ship surrendered, and nearly all the others were sunk or captured. You can judge how hard the vessels fought, when told that at the close of the action there was not a mast uninjured in either squadron. The defeat of the British could not have been more complete, seeing which, the English land commanders withdrew during the following night. They were in such a hurry that they left their sick and wounded, most of their camp equipage, and their intrenching tools and provisions.

The battle at Plattsburg convinced the British that Sir George Prevost had failed inexcusably, and he was dismissed from command. He would have been court-martialed, had he not died shortly after. It looked as if the invasion of our country from Canada was doomed to as complete failure as our attempts to invade Canada.

The defeat of Napoleon and the end of the gigantic war in France not only released a great many veteran soldiers, but a large number of sailors and ships. Great Britain therefore strengthened her fleets and blockading squadrons, and the triumphs of the Americans on the ocean were by no means so numerous as during the preceding year and a half.

Sir Thomas Hardy entered the harbor of Eastport in July, took the place without resistance, and declared the islands of Passamaquoddy Bay restored to the English Crown. At Machias, the fort was abandoned and captured without trouble. The following month, Hardy bombarded Stonington, Connecticut, for three days. A score of men, with three rusty old cannons, defended the place so well that the enemy was prevented from landing and lost seventy killed and wounded, while the Americans lost only seven men.

DEATH OF TECUMSEH. (*See page 278.*)

During the year 1814, great anger was caused by the English, who persuaded a large number of slaves to leave their masters and enter the ranks of the invaders. Because of this, England, at the close of the war, on the arbitration of the Emperor of Russia, had to pay us one and a quarter million dollars.

The crowning disgrace of the War of 1812, was the capture and burning of the city of Washington, the capital of our country. This never could have taken place had our government done its duty. There was plenty of time in which to make ready, as warning after warning had been received and yet nothing had been done.

A squadron under Sir Alexander Cochrane, with an army on board, sailed up the Chesapeake in August, 1814. Apparently he was seeking Commodore Barney, who had taken shelter with his ships in the Patuxent. Without pursuing him, Ross landed his five thousand veterans and marched toward Washington, forty miles away. By this time our government was alarmed. Brigadier-general William H. Winder had been placed in command a few weeks before, when he had five hundred regulars and two thousand undisciplined militia to obey his orders. Winder had hard work in deciding what to do, but at last he determined to make a show of resistance.

He took a strong position at Bladensburg and awaited Ross and Cochrane. Meanwhile, the British were advancing without opposition. By the time they reached Marlborough, Commodore Barney, following the orders of the secretary of war, burned his fleet and hastened to Washington. The English commander cared nothing for the flotilla; the capital was his destination and he arrived in sight of it on the 24th of August, 1814.

General Winder had little confidence in his militia, and still less in himself. The approach to Bladensburg was over a bridge, defended by artillery taken from Barney's flotilla, and served by him and his sailors. They fought with great courage, driving back the British again and again, but the militia fled, and at last Barney, the commander of the brave band, and Captain Miller were wounded. The fight had lasted an hour, and the six hundred marines had slain and wounded that number of the enemy before they were flanked, overpowered and compelled to surrender. General Ross immediately paroled Barney because of the splendid bravery he had shown.

The retreating Americans were ordered to assemble on the heights near Washington. That was done, and they were joined by a body of Virginia militia. Winder, however, had seen enough of his men to know they could not be depended upon, and he fled with them to Georgetown. The president, the heads of departments, and most of the citizens, fled from the city, which was entered at eight o'clock in the evening by General Ross with an advanced guard of eight hundred men.

He offered to spare the city for a large sum of money, but, unfortunately, there was no one within reach who was authorized to make such a bargain. He claimed that his flag of truce had been fired on, and, in retaliation, he ordered the city to be burned. It is not likely that his flag of truce was molested, but whether it was or not, the burning of Washington was a disgrace and a crime for which no excuse can be given.

In the vast conflagration that followed, the president's house, the offices of the several departments, many private dwellings, the libraries and public archives, the works

of art contained in the public buildings, the navy yard and its contents, a frigate on the stocks, and several smaller vessels were burned to ashes. The fire was visible at Baltimore, forty miles away. The only public property spared was the patent-office and jail. The loss was beyond computation.

The British stayed near the city till the evening of the 25th, when they withdrew, re-embarking on the 30th at St. Benedict.

General Ross boasted that he would make Baltimore his winter quarters. He had lost from desertion, fatigue and battle nearly a thousand men, but he was soon re-enforced, and proceeded against the city. He landed on the 12th of September, with about eight thousand troops, at North Point, fourteen miles from Baltimore, while a portion of the fleet went up the Patapsco to bombard Fort McHenry.

The Americans made what preparation they could to resist the attack. At the head of a small reconnoitering party Ross pushed toward Baltimore, but was hardly under way when he was mortally wounded by an American sharp-shooter, dying a few minutes later in the arms of an aid-de-camp. Colonel Brooke succeeded to the command of the invaders, and drove the Americans back upon the main body. Next day the British resumed their march. Meanwhile, Fort McHenry and Fort Covington, defending the narrow passage from the Patapsco into the harbor of Baltimore, were suffering bombardment from a British squadron of sixteen ships, drawn up in line of battle, a little more than two miles from the forts. On the night of the 13th an attempt was made to storm the works, but it failed. Thereupon, the squadron sailed down the river, and Colonel Brooke withdrew his men. The whole fleet soon afterward left Chesapeake Bay.

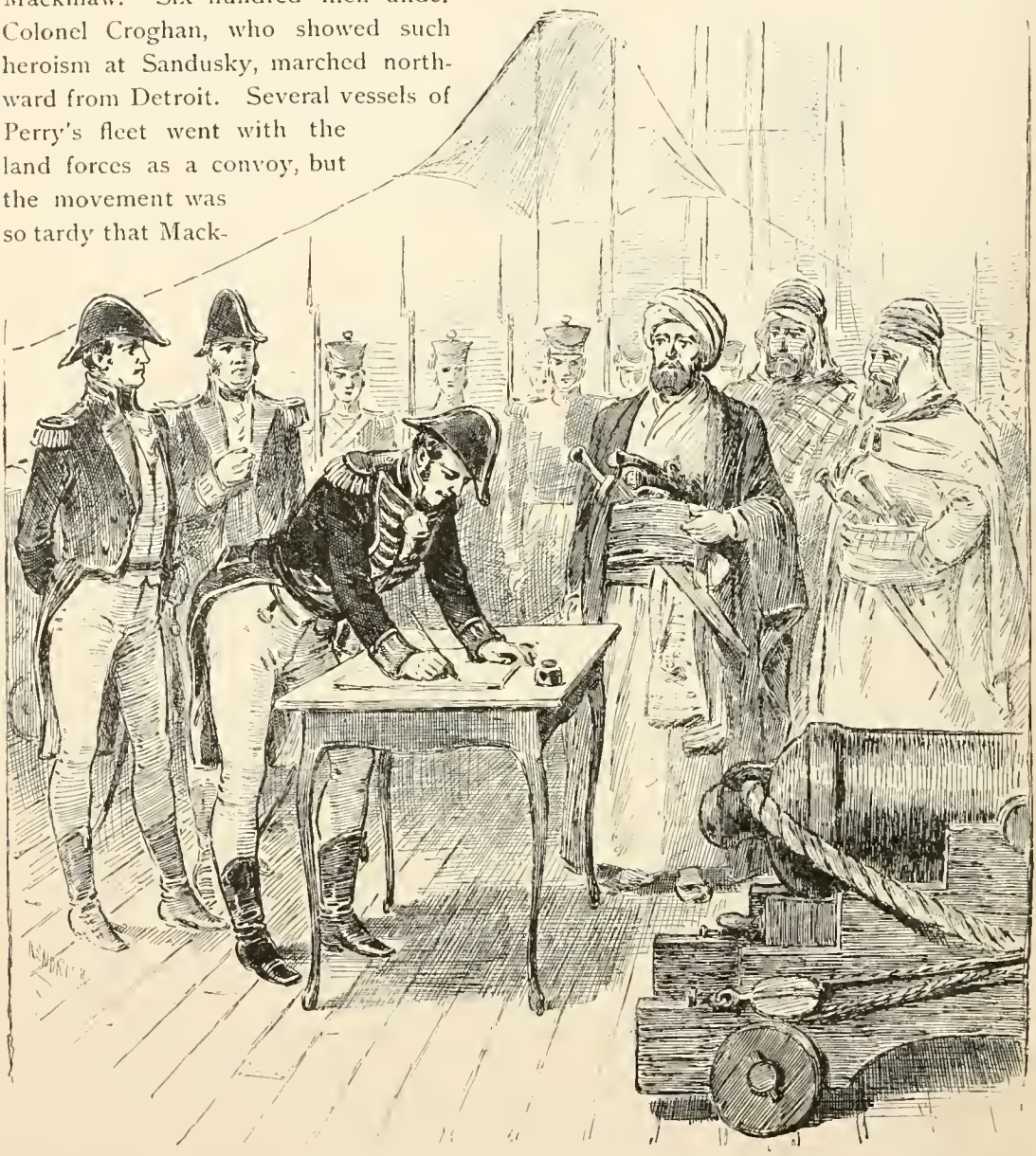
During the night of the bombardment of Fort McHenry, Francis S. Key, who had gone on board one of the British ships to arrange an exchange of prisoners, was an anxious spectator of the bombardment. "By the dawn's early light," as he peered in the direction of the fort, he caught sight of the flag floating above the smoke of battle. The sight inspired him to write that patriotic song, *The Star Spangled Banner*, which you are so fond of singing.

The war had become very unpopular in New England. A convention of delegates from the legislatures of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire and Vermont met in Hartford on the 15th of December, and sat for three weeks with closed doors. The result was an address charging the federal government with carrying out a system of measures injurious to the interests of New England. Amendments to the constitution were proposed, and a committee was appointed to visit Washington and confer with the government about applying the revenues of New England to her own defense. It was agreed that if the ends sought were not reached, and if peace was not soon concluded, the convention would meet again in June. But it never re-assembled.

During the summer of 1814 two expeditions were sent against the British and Indians of the North-west. In May two hundred men went up the Mississippi from St. Louis, and stationed themselves at Prairie du Chien, a short distance above the mouth of the Wisconsin. The Winnebagoes and Chippewas were in that section, and were so hostile to the Americans that it was hoped by this course they would be overawed.

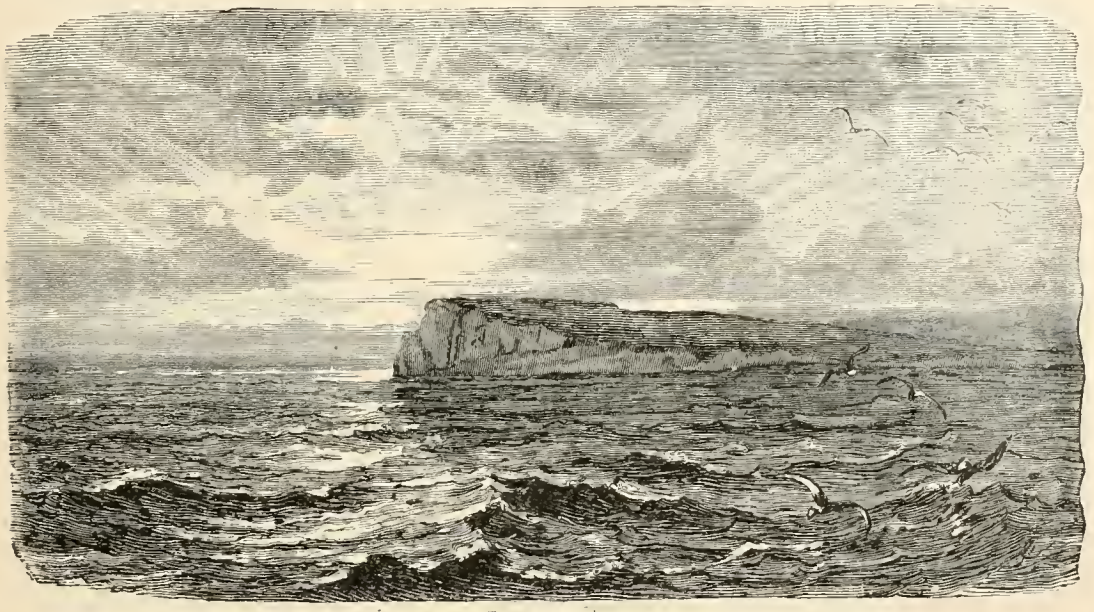
Before the fort could be completed, however six hundred Canadians and Indians invested the place, and compelled the patriots to surrender.

The other expedition was directed against the British post and depot of stores at Mackinaw. Six hundred men under Colonel Croghan, who showed such heroism at Sandusky, marched northward from Detroit. Several vessels of Perry's fleet went with the land forces as a convoy, but the movement was so tardy that Mackinaw was not reached until the 4th of August. Colonel Croghan found the defenses too lofty and strong to be harmed by his guns, and, therefore, ordered an assault. He was repulsed, however, and the expedition was given up with no further injury to the enemy than the destruction of some supplies and shipping in Georgian Bay.



SUBMISSION OF THE DEY OF ALGIERS.

You will recall that the Creek Indians had been subdued by General Jackson, and in the summer of 1814 they surrendered a large part of their lands to the Americans. They did it because they had no choice, and naturally they were sullen and discontented. The Indian race is treacherous, and the Creeks only awaited a chance for revenge. They got it when a British squadron entered the Gulf of Mexico. This squadron took possession of the forts at Pensacola, by permission of the Spanish authorities, who owned the country. At Pensacola the English fitted out an expedition against Fort Bower, at the entrance of Mobile Bay. Mobile Point was attacked September 15th, but the British were driven off, with the loss of a ship-of-war, and a number of men. The attack was made by land as well as by sea, and, among the assailants on shore, were two hundred



AMELIA ISLAND, FLORIDA.

Creek warriors. Their part in the movement, however, was not worth consideration, except to show their deceitful character.

But the action of the Spanish authorities was a serious matter, for it was contrary to the law of nations. General Jackson was now a major-general, and in command of the south-western military district. You know that he was a man of iron will and dauntless courage, so much so, indeed, that he sometimes went further than was right, as I will presently show you. He held the Spanish governor of Florida responsible for his bad faith, and, unable to get satisfaction, he marched from Mobile with two thousand Tennessee militia, and a number of Choctaw warriors. He stormed Pensacola on the 7th of November, compelled the British to retreat to the harbor, from which he finally drove them, and forced the Spanish governor to surrender the town.

Returning to Mobile, Jackson found urgent messages from New Orleans to go to the defense of that city without delay. The British had been strongly re-enforced by veterans from England, and were in the gulf preparing for an invasion of Louisiana. In

truth, this invasion had been fixed upon a long time before. The fleet lately used in the Chesapeake and the other squadrons along the Atlantic coast had come together at Jamaica and the Bermudas for the purpose of combining in the invasion.

The re-enforcements were under the command of General Pakenham, who had won a fine reputation in the Peninsula (that is Spain and Portugal) and was brother-in-law of the Duke of Wellington, the conqueror of Napoleon. They were provided with printing-presses, custom-house and civil officers, showing that they meant not only to conquer but to stay. Jackson was not alarmed by the preparations, and making all haste, reached New Orleans on the 2d of December. He enlisted every body possible, including militia, convicts, and negroes. Some time before the British made advances to Lafitte, the famous "Pirate of the Gulf," but he refused to help them, and with his followers joined Jackson.

The latter's promptness and vigor gave confidence to the authorities in New Orleans, but there was so much disaffection, that Jackson declared martial law. By that is meant that he took the government of the city out of the hands of the civil authorities and assumed it himself. When General Jackson did that, you may be sure that the people soon found that they had a master over them.

"Old Hickory" set to work to put New Orleans in the best shape for defense. Every man that could bear arms was compelled to help. Fort St. Philip, guarding the passage of the Mississippi at Detour la Plaquemine, was strengthened by new works. A long line of fortifications was built four miles below the city, on the left bank of the river. It extended from the stream eastward to an impassable cypress swamp. A ditch running between the river and swamp was turned to account by throwing up entrenchments and piling cotton bales until they were high enough to protect the troops in the rear. Cannon were mounted at different points. The west bank of the river was held by militia under General Morgan, and by Commodore Patterson with the crews and guns of part of his squadron. Thus the approach of the enemy was enfiladed. The pass of Bayou St. John, above the town, was guarded by a detachment, and several gun-boats were ready to dispute the passage of the river between Lake Pontchartrain and Lake Borgne.

The English fleet approached the entrance to this channel on the 14th of December. It was immediately attacked by the American flotilla, which, after inflicting much harm, was captured and destroyed. This enabled the British to choose their point of attack. On the 22d of December, they sent a body of troops in flat-bottomed boats to the extremity of the lake, where they landed in a reedy swamp. On the night of the 23d, they were fiercely attacked by Jackson, who killed a number but could not dislodge the rest. He fell back toward the town, and by the 28th of December, the British were within a half a mile of the American lines. They opened a fire of shells and rockets, but were repulsed by the American artillery.

Jackson's army at this time numbered about three thousand, mostly militia. They were stationed in a line of entrenchments a mile in length, about four miles from the city. This was protected by a canal in front and flanked by the batteries on the other side the river, beside which eight other batteries were in position. The British continued edging along until, on the last night of the year, they were within four hundred yards of

the works. They erected breastworks made of hogsheads of sugar and molasses, which are not the best material from which to construct defenses. Three times they tried to storm the American works, but were driven back with great loss. The cannon balls of the patriots sent the sugar and molasses flying in all directions.

This repulse put off the main assault for several days. In the meantime, Sir Edward Pakenham dug a canal for connecting a creek emptying into Lake Borgne with the main channel of the Mississippi, so as to send a part of his boats and artillery into the river and silence the batteries on the western side. It was a prodigous task finished in a brief time, but it had no effect on the final struggle.

A few days before the battle, Jackson was re-enforced by about three thousand militia, mostly from Kentucky, so that his force amounted to six thousand men. Though they were untrained in military tactics, they were unerring marksmen, and from behind their protection they aimed deliberately, and rarely threw a bullet away.

Early on the morning of January 8, 1815, the main body of the English army advanced against the American entrenchments. They numbered between seven and eight thousand men, and were veterans from the great battle-fields of Europe. They marched in two columns, each with a regiment in front, with ladders and fascines, and with a thousand Highlanders between, ready to support an attack on both wings of the Americans, while a strong reserve was in the rear.

The patriots, with their hundreds of rifles leveled, coolly awaited the moment to fire. They had a thirty-two pounder crammed to the muzzle with rifle balls. When the advancing lines were at the right point, the cannon was discharged and the Kentucky riflemen sent their rifle balls with fatal effect into the faces of the legions coming forward as if on dress parade. The Americans were formed in two rows, those in the rear loading for those in front, so that the fire was almost without a break.

The British reeled and fell back, but, rallying, pushed on, with their numbers melting like snow in the sun. They paused, rallied, staggered, advanced, but always with the awful tornado of bullets sweeping hundreds from their feet. The British order of battle was in two columns. The left advanced along the embankment skirting the river, while the right, forcing its way through the swamp, sought to turn Jackson's left. The canal mentioned above had partly fallen in, so that the boats could not come up, and the party sent forward not only arrived too late, but was weak in numbers. The British right was entangled in the swamp; they could not turn the American left, and had to fall back.

There was but one thing to do, that was for the assailants to retreat and arrange some other method of attack; but Pakenham seemed to be frenzied by the miscarriage of his plans and the desperate defense of the Americans. Placing himself at the head of the regiment bearing the scaling ladders, he called on his troops to follow. Supported by a number of his men, he dashed toward the American entrenchments. A few of them got within the lines, but fell riddled with bullets. Pakenham sank mortally wounded; Gibbs, the second in command, met the same fate, and Keane, the third in command. was so badly hurt that he could give no orders, while Colonel Dale fell at the head of the Highland regiment.

No human beings could stand such a fire, and the English speedily retreated. In less than half an hour the battle was over. In that brief time, the British had lost twenty-six hundred in killed, wounded and captured, nearly one-third being killed. On the side of the Americans the incredibly small number of seven killed and six wounded made up the total loss.

PRESIDENT MONROE. (*After the Portrait by A. B. Durand.*)

As an evidence of the fine marksmanship of the Americans, the following incident is told: Two Kentuckians fired their rifles at the same moment and a British officer was seen to fall.

"That's my man!" exclaimed one, as he began reloading his piece.

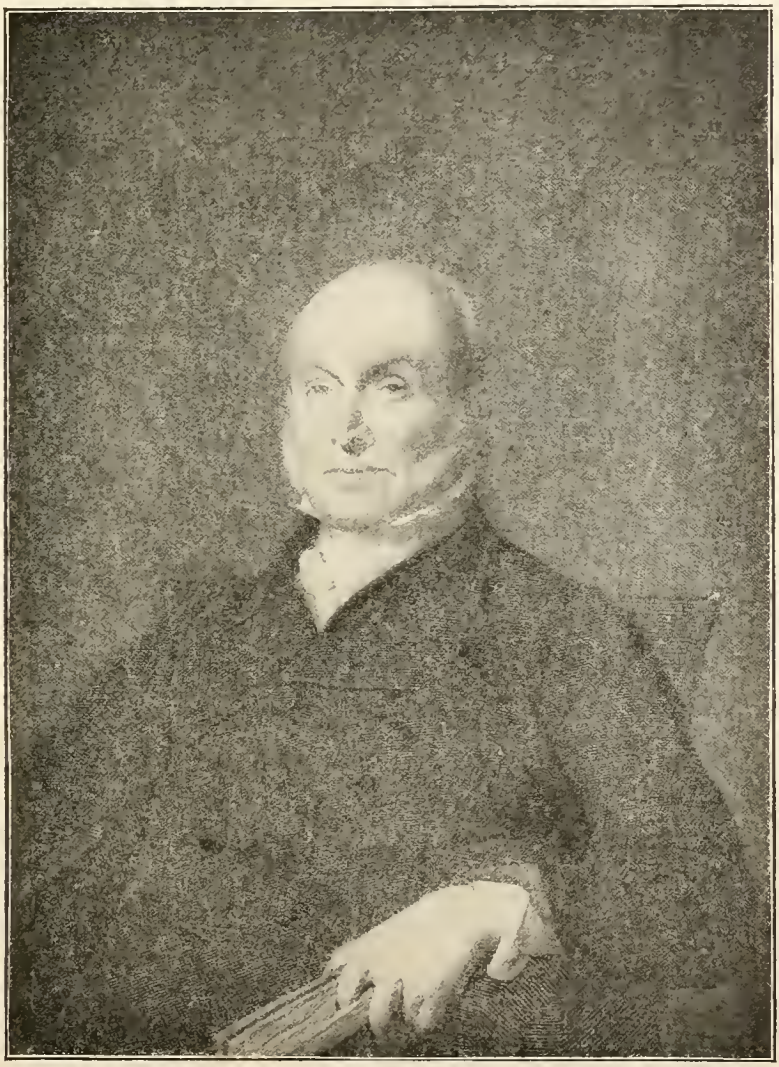
"No," said the other with emphasis, "I shot him; I drew a bead on him and I *never* miss."

"Nor do I," laughed the other, "I shot him in the right eye."

"And I in his left eye," said the other.

After the battle the body of the officer was sought out and examined. It was then found that he had been shot in both eyes.

Now we must not forget that though the fighting during the latter part of the war was mainly on land, our little navy was not idle. After the battle of New Orleans. Jackson granted a truce for the burial of the dead. That done, General Lambert with-



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

drew his detachment from the west bank of the river and retired with his shattered army to Lake Borgne. At Fort Bower, he learned that a treaty of peace had been signed between Great Britain and the United States. Fort Mobile was taken previous to this, by the army which had retreated from New Orleans, and on the 16th of January, the American frigate *President* was captured by the English ship *Endymion*. On the 20th of February, Captain (afterward Admiral) Charles Stewart, while cruising off Cape St. Vincent, in the lucky *Constitution*, which had won such brilliant victories under

other commanders, fell in with two British brigs—the *Cyane* of thirty-six guns and the *Levant* of eighteen.

The British vessels maneuvered to get the better position, but Stewart was a consummate seaman and he out-maneuvered them from the first. He held them as may be said each at a corner of a triangle, while he kept the third corner, firing his forward guns into one and his after guns into the other. The battle was fought by moonlight and was of short duration. Both the *Cyane* and *Levant* were captured.

Some years before the war of 1812, the King of Spain presented Captain Stewart with a Toledo sword, as an expression of his gratitude to the American for taking charge of a Spanish vessel drifting at sea, with all on board dead, or sick with the yellow fever. During the fight with the *Cyane* and *Levant*, Stewart paced back and forth on deck shouting his orders, the sword of which I have spoken held under his arm. A grape shot grazed Stewart's breast and carried away the hilt of the sword as neatly as if it had been sawed off. The gunner of the *Constitution* fashioned a rude hilt to the sword, just as it is to-day.

Admiral Stewart told me one afternoon the story of his battle with the *Cyane* and *Levant*, and explained how it was his fine sword had such a rough handle. I asked him whether he was ever wounded in battle. He replied that the nearest he came to it was in this engagement. When the firing was at its height, a pigeon, terrified by the smoke and tumult, alighted on Stewart's shoulder. While it perched trembling there, a musket ball struck its claw at the junction with the leg, and glancing off, inflicted a slight wound. But for that the shoulder of Stewart would have been badly hurt. You may not know that Admiral Stewart, who lived to be over ninety years old, was the grandfather of Parnell, the "uncrowned king of Ireland."

I said, when speaking about General Jackson, that his severity sometimes led him astray. After tidings had been received at New Orleans that the war was at an end, and when it was clear that the official news must soon come, six militiamen sentenced to be shot for desertion four months before were put to death near Mobile. Jackson approved of their execution. The poor fellows had gone home at the end of their three months' term of enlistment, believing that they had the legal right to do so. One of the men was a Baptist preacher, who had enlisted that he might be near a young son who was in the army, and another had not even deserted. Under the circumstances, their execution was cruel in the extreme.

When the British were in front of New Orleans, a member of the Louisiana legislature attacked General Jackson in the newspapers. Jackson ordered his arrest, and when Judge Hall granted a writ of *habeas corpus*, Jackson not only refused to obey it, but arrested the judge and sent him out of the city. After the victory, Jackson was himself arrested on a charge for contempt of court and fined a thousand dollars. The crowd in court hissed the sentence and carried the general on their shoulders into the street. Congress afterward gave Jackson a vote of thanks and a gold medal, and the fine was more than made up to him.

Whether he did right in declaring martial law in New Orleans was a question that was discussed for a long time. Jackson himself said he was never clear in his mind that

Capture of Cyane and Levant

Capture of the Cyane and Levant

he had legal warrant for the step until he read the speech of Stephen A. Douglas, made in the general's defense more than twenty years after the event.

Among the days that the democrats of this country are proud of celebrating, there is none in which they take greater pride than the 8th of January. That is the anniversary of the victory at New Orleans, and was such a personal triumph of General Jackson that a great many people think more about him than about the achievement of his little army that hurled back a powerful force of the finest soldiers in the world.

Great Britain had for a long time desired peace. In the summer of 1814, John Quincy Adams, James A. Bayard, Henry Clay, Jonathan Russell and Albert Gallatin, as agents of the United States, were sent to Ghent, in Belgium, where they were met by Lord Gambier, Henry Gouldburn and William Adams, ambassadors of Great Britain. They came together for the purpose of making peace and spent several months in negotiations. Finally, on the 24th of December, 1814, the treaty was agreed upon and signed.

You will notice, therefore, that the battle of New Orleans, Stewart's fight with the *Cyane* and *Levant*, and some minor conflicts, occurred after the signing of the treaty. They had no submarine telegraph or swift ocean steamers in those days, and it took the sailing vessel a long time to bring the news to this country.

Now as to the treaty of Ghent. It was one of the most ridiculous ever made. You know that the real cause of the war was that England persisted in searching our vessels for seamen claimed as deserters. The treaty of Ghent did not say a word about that practice, nor did it refer to the wrongs done our commerce, and the rights of neutral nations were left for the future to settle. It was agreed that all places or possessions taken by either side during the war, or after the signing of the treaty, should be given up; that all captures at sea should be relinquished, if made within a certain time, and that each party should put a stop to Indian hostilities and do its utmost to check the slave trade. Provision was also made for settling the boundaries between the United States and Canada, and for making clear some boundary lines that had been in dispute since the treaty of 1783. But, as I said, the main issues of the war were not mentioned.

But peace had come, and the American nation did not stop to learn whether it was honorable or dishonorable, or whether we gave up every thing for which we had been fighting. The people were frantic with delight, and embraced each other on the streets. The federalists had always opposed the war and were glad it was over; the democrats shouted for peace and General Jackson, the shouts for the latter being the louder.

Well might the United States rejoice that peace had come. The war had cost a thousand six hundred and eighty-three vessels, and more than eighteen thousand sailors, and the country was crushed under a debt of a hundred million dollars. The factories in New England were idle, and commerce was destroyed. The half-rotten shipping was decorated with bunting, and within twenty-four hours of the arrival of the news the dockyards rang with the sound of saw and hammer.

But war is a great calamity to any people, and the progress of our country was checked for years. We had gained in naval and military reputation, but the loss of life, the destruction of property, and the disturbance of business were on a vast scale.

Besides our enormous debt, the finances were in sad shape. The charter of the Bank of the United States ran out in 1811, and after a time the other banks had to stop specie payment. The want of money destroyed domestic commerce and business. During the year following the close of the war, Congress passed a bill re-chartering the

LAFAYETTE LAYING THE CORNER-STONE OF THE BUNKER HILL MONUMENT.

Bank of the United States. The president vetoed it, but it was amended and passed at the next session. The capital was $35,000,000. The central banking house was in Philadelphia, with branches in other cities. On the 4th of March, 1817, the new financial institution went into operation and the country's credit greatly improved.

Meanwhile the Dey of Algiers showed that he needed a lesson from our men-of-war.

This barbarian in 1812 made Mr. Lear, the American consul, pay him twenty-seven thousand dollars to insure the safety of himself and family and a few American residents. As it was a choice between giving the money and going into slavery, the bribe was paid. Then the Dey thought it a good time for him to renew his demand for tribute, while our navy was so occupied with Great Britain that it could give him

PRESIDENT JACKSON.

no attention. He let loose his pirates, therefore, with orders to collect the tribute. But peace you know soon came, and in March, 1815, war was declared against Algiers. Commodore Decatur and Commodore Bainbridge were sent to the Mediterranean with two squadrons to bring the Dey to his senses. These brave leaders lost no time in performing their task. On the 17th of June, Decatur captured the frigate of the Algerine admiral. Two days later he took another frigate, and shortly after appeared before the city of Algiers. He demanded the instant surrender of every American prisoner, full

repayment for all property destroyed and the positive yielding of future claims for tribute. The Dey, having learned of the capture of his vessels, saw that he must submit to the terms of the conqueror. He begged that the United States would continue paying him tribute even if it was only a little gunpowder. Decatur replied that the only form in which that could be done was from his cannon, in which case it would be accompanied by solid shot.

The Dey submitted, making the treaty on the quarter-deck of Decatur's ship. Not only that, but the Pasha of Tunis was made to pay forty-six thousand dollars for the American vessels he had allowed the English to capture in his harbor during the war. The Pasha of Tripoli was compelled to do the same, and, before the close of the summer, the Barbary States were humbled to the dust, and nothing more was ever heard about collecting tribute from Christian nations.

The closing years of Madison's administration saw many other important events. Treaties of peace were made with the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Cherokees and other Indian tribes, by which we gained much territory. Indiana was admitted into the Union on the 11th of December, 1816. It was the smallest of the Western States, its area being about thirty-six thousand square miles, while its population was ninety-eight thousand. The region at one time was a part of New France, and a number of trading-posts were fixed there during those early days.

It was about this time that the Colonization Society of the United States was formed. The negro has been a disturbing element in our country for many years. In more than one quarter there was a prejudice against him as strong as there is to-day against the Chinese. It seemed to a large number of good people that the best way of bringing quiet was to send the free negroes back to Africa. Of course all could not be placed on ships and sent off, but they were encouraged to emigrate to Africa, the country from which they originally came.

If you will look on the map of the Dark Continent, as Africa is often called, you will notice a tract of country bordering on the Gulf of Guinea, and marked Liberia, with a capital named Monrovia. Liberia was selected by the Colonization Society as the place to which the free negroes should be sent. Its capital was named in honor of President Monroe. A republican form of government was established in Monrovia, and enough emigrants went thither to organize a flourishing negro state. It still exists, but, of course, can never realize the object that brought it into existence.

The war had almost destroyed the federal party. In the fall of 1816 it brought forward Rufus King as its candidate for the presidency, while the democrats supported James Monroe of Virginia. The latter was elected by a large majority, and Daniel Tompkins of New York became vice-president. Indeed, the only vote against Monroe in the electoral college was that of New Hampshire.

CHAPTER XXV.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION. 1817–1825.

IF you will notice the birth-place of the first half dozen presidents of the United States you will understand why Virginia is called the "Mother of Presidents." Washington, Jefferson, Madison and Monroe were born there. Virginia at that time was the leading state in the Union. She was really the South. She was stronger than the democratic party in the North, which, uniting with her, was able to carry her candidates into office.

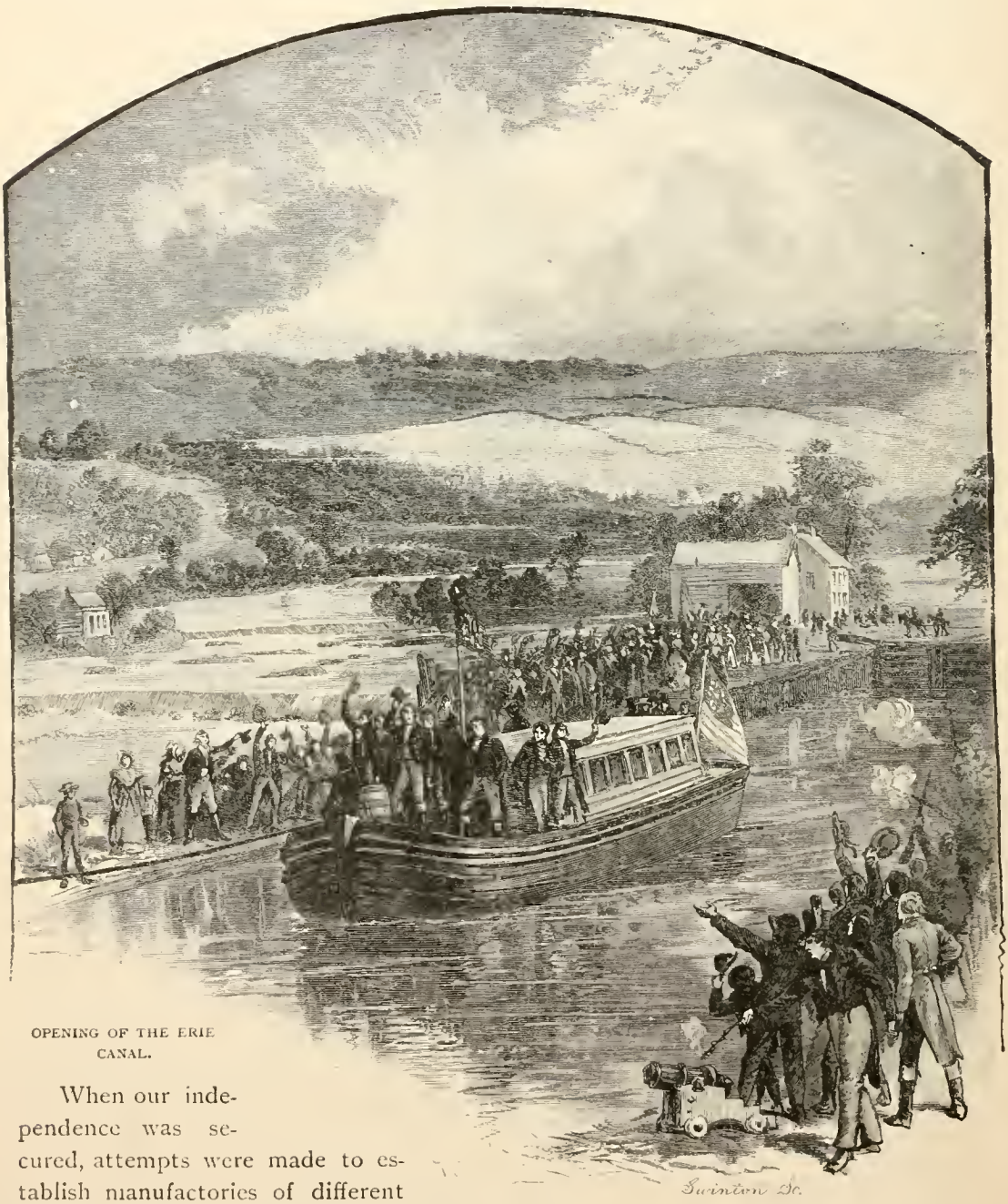
James Monroe was born in 1758, and was educated at William and Mary's College. He fought as a lieutenant at Trenton during the Revolution, and was also at Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. He left the army after the battle of Monmouth, in 1778, rejoining it when his state was invaded in 1781. He studied law under Jefferson, and when only twenty-five years old, was elected a delegate to the Continental Congress, having served before that in the Virginia legislature. While minister plenipotentiary to France, in 1794, he offended the administration, and was recalled. From 1799 to 1802, he was governor of Virginia, and was then sent by Jefferson to negotiate the purchase of Louisiana. In 1811, he was again elected governor of Virginia, and during the same year, was appointed by Madison his secretary of state. He was also secretary of war at the same time, and, there being no money in the treasury, he pledged his own means in order to secure the defense of New Orleans. He was a man of integrity, and, although without any special genius, was devoted to the interests of his country, whose development during his administration far surpassed that of any administration in its previous history.

The administration of Monroe began on the 4th of March, 1817. His cabinet included John Quincy Adams, secretary of state; William H. Crawford, secretary of the treasury; John C. Calhoun, secretary of war; Benjamin Crowninshield, secretary of the navy; and William Wirt, attorney-general.

Shortly after the inauguration of Monroe, he made a tour of three months, extending from Detroit to Maine. Jefferson did not like such proceedings, because he thought they looked too monarchical, but Monroe could very well plead the example of Washington.

At the time Monroe began his rule, the manufactures of our country were at a low ebb. This was because of the competition of British goods. Labor was cheap in Great Britain, where a great deal of machinery was used. Goods were sent to this country and sold at such low prices that the Americans could buy them for less than they could make them. You must not forget that during the colonial period England would not allow

the colonies to manufacture any thing. You remember it was said that we had no right to make even a horse-shoe nail.



OPENING OF THE ERIE CANAL.

When our independence was secured, attempts were made to establish manufactories of different textile fabrics; but labor was dear, capital scarce, and machinery beyond reach. The embargo of 1807, it may be said, forced the Americans to depend upon themselves, so far as manufactures were concerned. Of course there were some failures

at the beginning, but surprising progress was made. The value of native manufactured goods in 1810 was $170,000,000, and four years later it was increased to $200,000,000. Then, after the close of the war with England, we were flooded with productions of Great Britain and other European countries. This caused much distress, until Congress imposed a tax on manufactured goods brought into this country. This tax, as you will readily see, compelled the imported goods to be sold at a higher price than before, and gave the Americans a chance to make the same kind of goods, and get a price that afforded a living.

The question of free trade or protection has interested our country for a hundred years. Some people insist that there should be no duty, or tax, or tariff on any goods brought from a foreign country. Others are equally positive that we would be ruined unless we had such protection, for living and labor are so much cheaper in Europe that our laboring men could not earn enough money to live, unless they received protection.

However, I have no thought of discussing this question, and only seek to have you understand it. During the administration of Monroe, which is sometimes called the Golden Age of our history, there was much legislation by Congress in favor of protection, and our prosperity was great. You will be impressed with this, when some facts are given, hereafter, in their proper place.

The most important public event during the early years of Monroe's administration was the Seminole war. The Seminoles were a warlike tribe of Indians living in Florida, which at that time belonged to Spain. Their language is quite similar to the Spanish, and they were treacherous and vindictive. The everglades of Florida afforded them a hiding-place where it was almost impossible to track them. Negro slaves escaped into the swamps and joined the Seminoles and the few remaining Creeks. These mongrel people were very vicious and committed many depredations along the frontiers of Georgia and Alabama.

No doubt they had some excuse. The Creeks believed they had been cheated out of their lands, and the runaway negroes naturally felt a hatred of those who had been their masters. It is fair to believe also that the United States looked with longing eyes upon Florida and regarded as intruders the Spaniards who had given help to England during the late war.

General Gaines was sent to quell the uprisings among the Seminoles and Creeks, and to drive every red-man from the territory ceded by the Creeks to the United States. He was not only unable to perform the task, but he was in a dangerous position. General Jackson was dispatched to his aid. That fiery officer always determined to succeed, no matter what course was necessary. He raised a large force of Tennessee horsemen, in addition to the regulars with which he was supplied, and with his usual vigor, overran the Indian territory. His "official" orders were not to enter Florida except in pursuit of the enemy, but such orders were meant to enable our government to answer any protest from Spain. In his message to Congress, President Monroe said that where the authority of Spain ceased to exist, there the United States had the right to pursue the enemy on the principle of self-defense. The only points over which

Spain had control were Pensacola and St. Augustine. Consequently, as you will see, an invasion of Florida was one of the events that was certain to take place.

Previous to this, a piratical post that had been formed on Amelia Island was broken up. This island is on the north-eastern extremity of the coast of Florida, and had been taken possession of by persons who claimed to be acting under the authority of some of the republics of South America that were seeking to free the Floridas from the rule of Spain. A similar establishment on the island of Galveston, Texas, was also suppressed. Besides their political objects, the squatters on the island were known to be carrying on an unlawful trade in slaves. For many years the Spanish colonies in South America had been in rebellion against the home government, just as Cuba has been in recent years. Some of these colonies gained their independence, for Spain steadily grew weaker with the lapse of time. Our government could not help feeling favorably toward these young republics, though we could give them no active aid.

Returning to the account of General Jackson's invasion of Florida, it may be said that he entered the territory in March, 1818, and in the following month took possession of the Spanish post of St. Mark's, at the head of Appalachee Bay. An American vessel enticed a couple of Seminole chiefs on board, and there being proof that they were leaders in the massacre of some Americans a short time before, Jackson promptly hanged them.

Leaving a strong garrison at St. Mark's, Jackson made a hurried march to the Indian town of Suwanee, in the hope of catching the famous Seminole leader Billy Bowlegs. But that chief with the curious name learned of his danger. The women and children were sent to a place of safety, and, after some slight resistance, the warriors followed them. At the town of Suwanee, Robert C. Ambrister, formerly an officer in the British army, under suspension of duty for a year because of a duel in which he took part, was made a prisoner. On the return of Jackson to St. Mark's, Ambrister was tried by court-martial, together with a Scotchman named Alexander Arbuthnot, who was an Indian trader. It was through the latter that the Indians at Suwanee learned of the march of Jackson against them. Ambrister was also a friend of the Indians and gave them all the help he could.

The court-martial found both guilty, and sentenced Arbuthnot to be hanged and Ambrister to be shot. The court reconsidered the sentence of Ambrister and ordered him to receive fifty lashes and a year's imprisonment. Jackson set aside the revised sentence, and the Englishman was shot. It is not necessary to add that the Scotchman was hanged.

Jackson now marched on Pensacola, the capital of the province, drove out the Spanish authorities, and declared that the rule of the United States extended over the whole territory. The Spanish governor protested, but what did General Jackson care? The governor fled on horseback to Fort Barrancas, at the entrance to Pensacola Bay. Three days later, May 27th, Barrancas was captured by Jackson, and the Spanish officials and troops were sent to Havana.

Such high-handed proceedings on the part of Jackson were sure to bring a protest from Spain. Congress ordered an investigation of the conduct of the Seminole war.

The report severely censured Jackson. It said he had disobeyed the orders of the war department; that he had committed gross breaches of the constitution and the laws: that he had assumed the power of raising a volunteer army of twenty-five hundred men, with two hundred and thirty officers, out of whom court-martial had been formed to pass upon the question of life and death, with no more right to do so than they had to judge any American citizen; and that his entrance into Pensacola was contrary to orders and highly blamable.

You would think that such a report would have crushed Jackson. Far from it there is nothing so popular as success. "Old Hickory" had won imperishable renown at New Orleans, and his campaign against the Indians and Spaniards in Florida was so brilliant as to make him yet more famous. Besides, he had gained us a splendid piece of territory, and he was popular not only with the masses, but with the president, cabinet, and with many influential leaders. In fact, it is easy to believe that the committee's report of censure was really intended to be taken as commendation. Jackson insisted that the Spaniards stirred up the Seminoles to commit their crimes against the settlers, and that he took the only course to stamp out the war. After some debate in Congress over the report, that body passed a resolution acquitting Jackson of all blame.

Although Florida had become really a part of the United States, it still required official transfer. Spain had her hands so full that it was out of her power to expel the Americans, and it may be said, therefore, that she could only make the best bargain possible. In February, 1819, a treaty was framed at Washington, by which Spain ceded to the United States, East and West Florida, including the adjacent islands. Ferdinand, who was then king of Spain, refused to ratify the instrument and sent an envoy to America with various complaints, chiefly with respect to our encroachments on Texas, then a Mexican province. This caused delay, but the treaty was at last ratified in October, 1820. The United States agreed to pay the claims of American citizens against Spain to the extent of five million dollars. The Sabine, instead of the Rio Grande, was made the dividing line between the territories of the two governments west of the Mississippi. This line ran from the mouth of the Sabine to the 32d parallel, thence north to the Red River, and along that stream to the 100th meridian, thence north to the Arkansas, and along that to its source on or near the 42d parallel, and thence west to the Pacific. It will be interesting to trace these boundaries on your maps.

General Jackson was the first governor of Florida. He had a difficult task, but he was the man to perform it. An impetuous will, quickness of decision, and a daring that stopped at nothing, were the qualities needed, and you know that no person ever had them in a more marked degree than Andrew Jackson. Let me give you an example. Of course the Spanish officials did all they could to annoy him. The treaty required them to give up the provincial archives. They refused for a long time, and when they pretended to obey, it was found that a number of papers were kept back by Don Cavalla, the late Spanish governor. Jackson sent a body of armed men after Cavalla. He resisted, and was seized and thrown into prison. The missing papers were captured, and then, as Jackson had no more use for the Spaniard, he was released.

In 1819 the southern part of Missouri was formed into a territorial government

under the name of Arkansas, and in December of the same year Alabama was admitted into the Union. You know that Maine, from the early colonial days, had been a part of Massachusetts. Early in 1820 it was cut off from that powerful state and became an independent member of the Union.

In March, 1818, Missouri asked for admission as a state. It was too late in the session for Congress to take action, except to report, but when the time came to act on this report, one of the most violent debates in the history of our country took place. Slavery, as you will remember, was introduced at Jamestown, Virginia, just two hundred years before.

CREEK INDIANS.
From an old print.

Although it was legal at one time in every state, the institution itself followed a natural law and survived only where it was profitable. In the warm climate of the South it flourished. Those who believed it was wrong were hopeful that it would gradually die out of itself and thus the country would in time be rid of the evil.

But unexpected causes prevented. In the first place, the new territory of Louisiana opened a vast area fitted for slave labor. Eli Whitney invented the cotton-gin in 1793, which increased the demand for cotton a hundred fold, and immeasurably increased the importance of slave labor.

During the Congress of 1818–19, a bill was introduced with a provision forbidding the

existence of slavery or involuntary servitude in Missouri, whenever that territory should become a state. The discussion was fierce, and passion ran high. It was not ended when the session closed. The excitement spread, and threats of disunion were heard in

OSCEOLA, CHIEF OF THE SEMINOLES.
From an old print.

more than one quarter. The division between the North and South was so sharply drawn that many plainly foresaw what actually came forty years later. In 1820 Thomas Jefferson wrote to a friend—"I have been among the most sanguine in believing that our Union would be of long duration. I now doubt it much, and see the event at no

great distance, and the direct consequence of this question; not by the line which has been so confidently counted on—the laws of nature control this—but by the Potomac, Ohio, and Missouri, or, more probably, the Mississippi upward to our northern boundary. My only comfort and confidence is, that I shall never live to see this."

It followed inevitably that when Congress resumed the discussion on the 23d of November, 1820, the most bitter feeling was shown by both sides. The whole question of African slavery was debated with savage vehemence. The north-eastern states, having themselves given up negro bondage, were strongly opposed to its extension into new states. The South naturally wanted to see the system extended, because it would increase her strength in the senate and conversely strengthen the system itself. The Missourians were inclined to go with the South, and as they refused to adopt a clause for the prohibition of the growth of slavery, the northern states fought the admission of Missouri into the Union. Her people threatened in 1819 to constitute it into an independent state, if not admitted on its own terms.

Finally, on the 28th of February, 1821, the question was settled by compromise. The agreement was that slavery was to be permitted in Missouri, but forever shut out from all other parts of the Union north and west of the northern limits of Arkansas; that is to say, it should be permitted nowhere north of 36° 30′ except in Missouri. This was what became famous in history as the "Missouri Compromise." The state was admitted on the 21st of August, 1821, forming the twenty-fourth member of the Union.

The population of the United States in 1820 was nearly ten millions. New York had the largest number of inhabitants (1,372,111) while Virginia stood next (1,065,116) and Pennsylvania almost abreast (1,047,507).

In the autumn of 1820, during the discussion of the Missouri question, the presidential election took place. The president and vice-president were re-elected by an almost unanimous vote, there being practically no federal party. Monroe was popular, and his administration was a great success. Two measures were especially pleasing to the country at large, one of which was the act passed in March, 1818, granting pensions to the surviving officers and soldiers of the Revolution. Its provisions were afterward extended so as to benefit the widows and children of the patriots that had died. The other was an agreement made with Great Britain in October of the same year, by which American citizens were given the right to share with English subjects in the fisheries of Newfoundland. About the same time also the boundary of the United States toward Canada, from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains was defined.

I am sure that you have lived long enough to understand that now and then we have what are known as "hard times."

In 1819 came the first great financial crisis to disturb our country. When in 1817 the Bank of the United States was re-organized, the facilities for credit were so improved that much wild speculation followed. The branch bank in Baltimore was infested by a number of sharpers, among whom were the bank officers, and they managed to get fully two million dollars from the bank beyond its securities. President Cheves, however, of the superior board of directors, stopped the limitless credits, exposed the knavery, and helped bring the business of the country back to a sound basis. For a considerable

time, financial affairs were in a bad shape, and the Bank of the United States itself barely escaped bankruptcy.

The excitement about Missouri was not over when attention was turned to the West Indies, where piracy had grown to alarming proportions. Indeed those numerous islands seemed to have become the chosen home of hundreds and thousands of freebooters, who robbed, burned and killed without restraint. A small American squadron was sent out in 1819 under Commodore Perry to punish the sea-robbers. I have told you elsewhere that Perry shortly afterward died of yellow fever. Early in 1822 another squadron sailed thither, which destroyed more than twenty piratical vessels on the coast of Cuba. A still larger force went out the next year under Commodore Porter. This finished the work, and the buccaneers were heard of no more.

At that time (as has been the case ever since), South America was disturbed by many revolutions. The different countries had long been held as provinces of European monarchies. They now declared their independence and tried to win it by hard fighting. It was natural that we should feel strong sympathy for them. Henry Clay urged our government to recognize them. In March, 1822, Congress passed a bill recognizing the struggling republics as sovereign nations. The president supplemented this action the following year with a vigorous message, in which he asserted that for the future the American continent was not to be considered as territory for colonization by any European power. This famous declaration makes what has been known ever since as the MONROE DOCTRINE. You will see that it consecrates the whole Western hemisphere to free institutions.

One of the most pleasing incidents of Monroe's administration was the coming to this country of the Marquis de Lafayette. His memorable visit and tour, however, extended into the administration succeeding that of Monroe. No foreigner was ever held in higher esteem than the young nobleman, that, when a young man, fought without pay for the independence of America. You know how Washington loved him; that alone would have been enough to give him a warm place in the hearts of the American people, but Lafayette was in every way worthy of their affection.

He landed in New York in August, 1824, and afterward traveled through every state in the Union, a tour of more than five thousand miles. He was received with the highest honor, and it would take a large volume to give the particulars of that famous journey through our country. There are many people living who remember Lafayette's visit, and it is interesting to listen to their accounts. Only a few days ago, a gentleman who was not very old said to me that he could lay claim to having shaken hands with General Washington. When I looked at him in surprise, he explained that he had shaken hands with the bosom friend of Washington, meaning of course Lafayette.

"It was in Philadelphia," he said, "and I was a small boy who was fighting my way forward in the crowd, when Lafayette saw me, smiled, and beckoned me to approach. You may be sure I obeyed, and was proud when he gave me a warm grasp of his hand, which I remember was as soft as silk."

In Trenton, he attended service in the First Presbyterian Church. An old gentleman told me that he got a seat close to Lafayette and watched him during the serv-

ices. While the minister was praying, Lafayette bowed his head and my friend kept his gaze upon him.

"The prayer was very touching," said the old gentleman, "and when the minister referred to the Revolutionary patriots, fast passing away, and to the services of the great and good Washington, I saw the tears run down Lafayette's cheeks."

Afterward, while the guest sat in a carriage watching a parade of the troops, a grizzled old soldier suddenly ran out of the ranks, and flinging his arms about his neck shouted amid his tears: "I fought with you and Washington at Brandywine and Monmouth — you fought bravely. God bless you!" The Frenchman was greatly affected, and others shed tears.

DEATH OF GENERAL THOMPSON.

What a scene it must have been when he visited Mount Vernon and stood with

bowed head beside the tomb of Washington! What memories must have crowded upon him, as he recalled that time, nearly fifty years before, when in the flush of youth and a chivalrous patriotism, he crossed the Atlantic and first met Washington! How his heart must have swelled at the remembrance of those dark days when they stood beside each other in gloom and defeat, and afterward grasped hands in the glory of triumph at Yorktown, as the star of America liberty rose, never to set again!

The Father of his Country had slept in the dust for a quarter of a century, but America was now a great nation, with a trebled population, a widely extended territory, and with peace and prosperity within her borders. That brave young patriot had become an old man, weeping at the tomb of him whom he had loved and revered as he could love and revere no one else.

While in Boston on the 17th of June, 1825 — that being the fiftieth anniversary of the battle of Bunker Hill, Lafayette laid the corner stone of the monument then about to be raised. In September of that year he sailed from Washington in an American frigate specially prepared for his reception. It was named the *Brandywine*, in honor of the first battle in which Lafayette was engaged, and where he was wounded, forty-eight years before. I should tell you also that before he went home Congress voted him the sum of two hundred thousand dollars and a township of land as a token of the national gratitude.

The presidential election took place in the fall of 1824. There was no lack of candidates. They were John Quincy Adams, son of John Adams; General Jackson; William H. Crawford, and Henry Clay. Adams was supported by New England; Jackson by the extreme South; Crawford by Virginia, and Clay by the West.

The contest was mainly between Adams and Jackson, but no one of the four had enough majority, and the choice, therefore, fell to the house of representatives. That chamber declared John Quincy Adams president, though Jackson had received more votes. John C. Calhoun of South Carolina was chosen vice-president.

CHAPTER XXVI.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION — 1825–1829.

IT has happened only once in the history of our country that father and son have been honored with the presidency of the United States. John Quincy Adams was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, in July, 1767. He was talented in boyhood, and attracted notice wherever he went by his vigor of mind and body. Such precocious children as a rule do not fulfill the expectations of their friends, but it was different with young Adams.

With a most excellent mother and a distinguished father, he received every educational advantage. When eleven years old, he went with his father to France and was placed at school in Paris. In the summer of 1780, at the age of thirteen, he was taken to Holland, where he entered the University of Leyden. After serving for more than a year as the private secretary to the American minister in Russia, he made the tour of Sweden, Norway, the Netherlands, France and England. Returning home, he entered the junior class at Harvard College and graduated in 1788. His ability was so marked that Washington made him minister to The Hague, and later to Portugal. Previous to this he had been admitted to the Boston bar.

In 1797 his father, who was then president, transferred him to Berlin. In 1803 the federalists made him United States senator, and in 1809 he was appointed minister to Russia. He negotiated commercial treaties with Prussia, Sweden and Great Britain, and in 1814 was the leading American commissioner in the famous treaty of Ghent. He was Monroe's secretary of state throughout his eight years' administration, and filled the office with marked ability.

You remember that in the contest for election Jackson had more votes than Adams, but Henry Clay threw his influence on the side of Adams, and thus defeated Jackson. The senate showed much opposition to Clay when his nomination as Adams' secretary of state was before that body. A good many believed that Adams had made a bargain with Clay, which he thus sought to carry out. The charge was indignantly denied by those gentlemen, and when the pure character of both is remembered, it is impossible to believe that there was ground for such a charge.

In the course of 1825 a dispute arose between the federal administration and the governor of Georgia, over the removal of the Creek Indians. As a payment to Georgia for giving up her claims to a large part of the Mississippi Territory, the government had agreed to buy for the Georgians certain Indian lands within the borders of their state, whenever it could be done peaceably and on reasonable terms.

But the Creeks refused to sell their coveted lands. A council of their chiefs resolved

that they would not part with a foot, and that they should kill any of their number who signed any agreement to do so. Nevertheless, in 1825 commissioners met a party of Creek chiefs at Indian Spring, and a treaty was made, by which the lands were ceded to the United States.

The Creeks, however, kept their word, and as soon as the chiefs who signed the treaty came back to them, every one was killed. It was too late, however, to have any effect. Meanwhile, the state of Georgia had ordered a survey of the lands occupied by the Indians. The treaty of the latter with the United States allowed the Creeks to stay in possession until September 1, 1826. It was certain, therefore, that if Georgia undertook to carry out the survey, a conflict with the Indians would follow. George M. Troup was governor of Georgia. When remonstrated with, he replied with hot words, in which the doctrine of state rights in the most advanced form was asserted. He insisted on the independence of Georgia, and declared that the survey of the Indian lands must go on. Governor Troup charged the federal government with hostility to slavery, and called on the state legislature to take steps in self-defense. The legislature promptly reported that the time had come for united action on the part of the South against the general government.

When we speak now of secession or disunion, we are apt to think that little was heard of it until 1861, but to show you that such an idea is a mistake, I will quote from the resolution passed by the Georgia house of representatives in 1825:

"The hour is come, or it is rapidly approaching, when the states from Virginia to Georgia, from Missouri to Louisiana, must confederate, and as one man say to the Union: We will no longer submit our constitutional rights to bad men in Congress, or on judicial benches. The powers necessary to the protection of the Confederated States from enemies without and enemies within, alone was confided to the united government; all others were retained to the several states, separate and sovereign. The states of the South will convey their product to the markets of the world; the world will open wide its arms to receive them. Let our northern brethren, then, if there is no peace in the Union, if the compact has become too heavy to be longer borne, in the name of all the mercies, find peace among themselves. Let them continue to rejoice in their self-righteousness; let them bask in their own meridian, while they depict the South as a hideous reverse. As Athens, as Sparta, as Rome was, we will be; they held slaves, we hold them. In the simplicity of the patriarchal government we would still remain master and servant, under our own vine and our own fig-tree, and confide for safety upon Him who of old-time looked down upon this state of things without wrath."

You will admit that the foregoing was bold language, and what is more, it prevailed. A long discussion followed between Governor Troup on one side, and General Gaines, who was sent to Georgia to keep the peace, and the secretary of war on the other. The president would not yield, and he forbade the survey, pending the consideration of a new treaty by Congress. The new treaty was made and Georgia still complained. Troup ordered new surveys in accordance with the terms of the former treaty. The Creeks appealed to the president, who laid the matter before Congress. Inasmuch as only a

wretched tribe of Indians was concerned, a do-nothing policy was adopted, Georgia won, and, of course, the Indians were crushed.

Many of the readers of these pages can doubtless recollect, even if they did not visit, the great centennial jubilee of 1876, when the country celebrated the hundredth anniversary of its independence. The great exposition held at Philadelphia in commemoration of the founding of the nation was the most important and extensive that

PRESIDENT VAN BUREN.

had been projected up to that time. In like manner the year 1826 was the semi-centennial celebration of the Declaration of Independence, and it was a year of jubilee, such as had never before been known on this side of the Atlantic. At the end of the half-century, the United States stood before the world a recognized and successful power, and with a future more promising than that of any other nation on the globe. Our fathers and grandfathers had a right to rejoice, and they did it just as heartily as we did a half-century later.

It is one of the most remarkable facts in all history that on that day in 1826 the two leading Americans of the Revolution, next to Washington, passed peacefully from earth. A great many saw a mysterious and sacred beauty in the event, and believed that it was a direct act of God. Horace Greeley held such belief, and declared that it was specially ordered by Heaven. Those who claimed that it was a mere coincidence, he insisted,

PRESIDENT TYLER.

could as well claim that a bushel of type cast into the street and then picked up and set at random would give an impression of the Declaration of Independence.

On the 30th of June, 1826, a gentleman, who was to deliver an oration on the coming anniversary, called on the elder Adams and asked for a toast as coming directly from him. "I will give you," said the feeble old man, "Independence forever!" He was asked whether he would not like to add something to it. "Not a word," was the reply.

When the assemblage in Quincy were leaving the hall in which they had held the

celebration, it was whispered that Adams was dead. It was known that he had been slowly sinking for several days, and his death could not be far off. He was nearly ninety-one years of age. His mind was as bright and active as ever, but his eyesight was so dim that he could neither read nor write. He suffered no pain, but his breathing grew more and more difficult till the morning of the anniversary. When the joyous bells began to ring, he was asked whether he knew the meaning of what he heard. "Oh yes," he answered, "it is the 4th of July. God bless it! It is a great and glorious day." Sometime later he feebly said, "Jefferson still survives!" These were his last words. He died just before sunset.

The elder Adams was buried in the family vault in the cemetery, but on the completion of the Unitarian Church of Quincy, just across the street, in 1828, the body was taken from the vault into the room beneath the church.

Adams was mistaken in believing that Jefferson was still living, for he had died several hours before. He too was an aged man, being in his eighty-fourth year. On the 3d of July, he dozed hour after hour, under the influence of opiates. Now and then when he roused, he expressed the hope that he might live until the next day, the one he had done so much to help consecrate fifty years before. Late in the evening of the 3d, he roused again and whispered to his grandchild's husband, Mr. N. P. Trist, who sat by his bed, "This is the Fourth." Mr. Trist remained silent, for it still lacked an hour of the day. Jefferson sank into another doze and it was long before he opened his eyes. "This is the Fourth," he said more positively than before. Mr. Trist smiled and nodded. "Ah," sighed the dying statesman, with an expression of joy, as he again sank into slumber.

The watchers more than once thought he was dying, but he lingered until twenty minutes to one in the afternoon, when his soul passed peacefully away. "I resign my soul to God, and my daughter to my country," are said to have been his last words. The remains of the author of the Declaration of Independence lie in a small inclosure to the right of a road leading from Charlottesville, Virginia, to Monticello. An obelisk nine feet high marks the spot.

One of the important issues during the younger Adams' administration was the tariff. The South was not engaged in manufactures and it therefore opposed protective tariff, because such a tariff made manufactured goods dearer than they would have been if the cheap productions of Europe had been admitted free to this country.

A tariff, however, is necessary in order to give a revenue to the government. Then, as I have explained elsewhere, our manufacturers claim that they can not pay good wages and make a profit for themselves, unless they are protected by a tariff on foreign goods. The question of tariff is one about which the ablest men will probably always disagree.

In July, 1827, a national convention was held at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, to discuss the protection of native industry. Only four of the slaveholding states sent delegates to the convention, and a memorial to Congress was adopted, asking for an increase of duties on a number of articles made in this country. The secretary of the treasury referred to the subject in his report a few months later, and, in the session of 1827–8,

"JOHNNY BULL," OR NO. 1. (The first locomotive used.)

Congress passed a tariff bill, by which the duties on fabrics made of wool, cotton, linen, and silk, and those on articles made of iron, lead, etc., were much increased.

One party wished Congress to appropriate money for important public works. The practice, you know, has become quite common in later years for congressmen to secure appropriations for public works in their respective districts. During the younger Adams administration there were many who opposed such action, and insisted that each section should take care of itself. The greatest of these works then in progress was the Erie Canal. This was called "De Witt Clinton's Ditch," and he was ridiculed for persisting in digging what so many believed was a costly and useless thing. On the 4th of July, 1817, the canal was begun, and in October, 1825, it was opened for traffic. The Erie Canal, three hundred and sixty-three miles long, is the largest in the world, and connects Lake Erie and all the Great Lakes with the tide water of the Atlantic.

Although the canal passed through a region of great fertility, much of the country at that time was a wilderness. It gave a tremendous impetus to the settlement and prosperity of the state. Villages and towns sprang up as if by magic along its banks, and some of these are now important cities. The original cost of this vast work was seven million six hundred thousand dollars. Its earnings have been so enormous that in some years they amounted almost to half that sum.

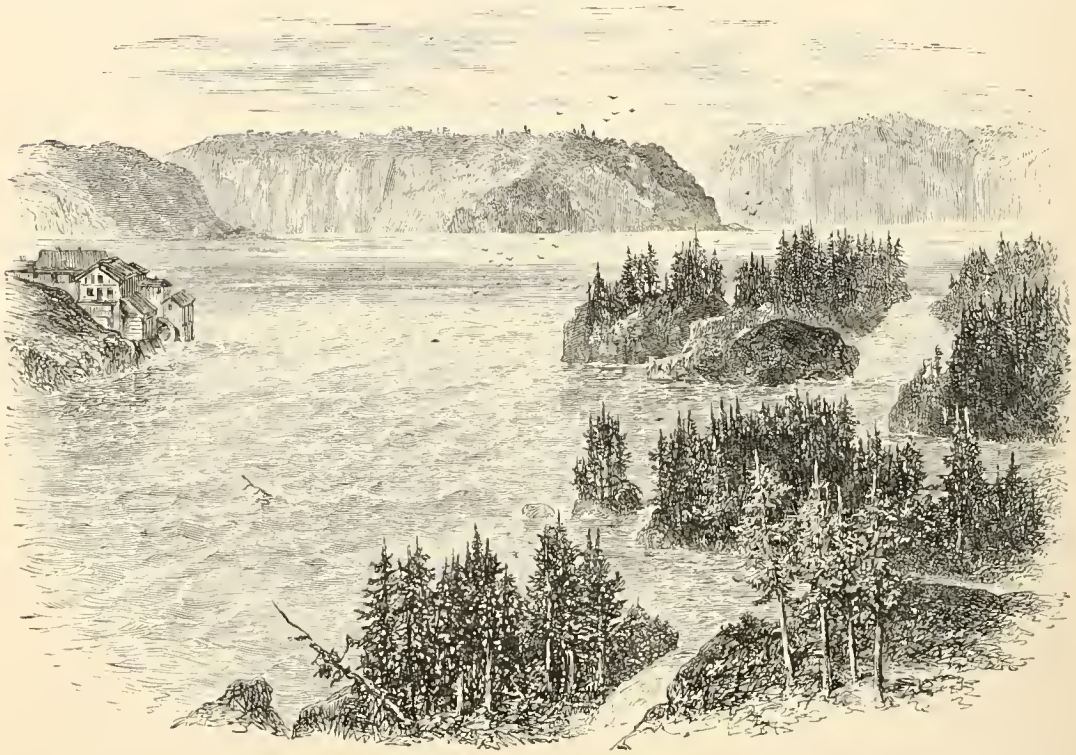
It was not long before the first steam locomotive in the United States was put in service on the Delaware and Hudson Canal Railroad. This was in August, 1829, shortly after the close of the younger Adams' administration. Steam was soon introduced on the Baltimore and Ohio, and on the Albany and Schenectady railroads, also on that from Charleston, South Carolina, to Hamburg.

Some of those early locomotives were odd-looking affairs. Those on the Baltimore and Ohio had a working-beam over the middle of the boiler, so that each one looked like a steamboat on land. The first obtained by the Camden and Amboy Railroad was brought from England, and is still preserved with great care. Perhaps you saw it at the Centennial, where the engineer who used to run it over the road was almost as much of a curiosity as the engine itself. This locomotive was always known as "Johnny Bull," or "Number One." The tank was a large hogshead, and, when running, the engineer and fireman had to stand in the open air. If the driving snow and sleet were more than they could stand, they stretched a piece of canvas in front of their faces. Homely and crude as were those early locomotives, they were capable of high speed. I have seen "Johnny Bull" travel at the rate of nearly a mile a minute. That surely ought to satisfy anyone, but it is now surpassed every day by the beautiful engines on the Pennsylvania and other leading railways.

The number of miles of railroad in operation in this country in 1830 was twenty-three; ten years later it was 2,818; ten years after it had increased to 9,021, and, to-day, if all our railroads could be extended in a straight line, they would reach more than five times around the globe.

The presidential election in the fall of 1828 was marked by much bitterness and strong party feeling. Adams offered himself again, and was ardently supported by Henry Clay; but Jackson's popularity could not be resisted. He could not compare

in scholarship, attainments and statesmanship with Adams, but "Old Hickory" had a place that no one else could attain in the affections of the people. His courage, patriotism, bluntness, and remarkable success were qualities that won him high favor, not only with the masses but with leaders. And so it came about that while Adams was given



ST. JOHN'S RIVER, FRONTIERS OF NEW BRUNSWICK AND MAINE.

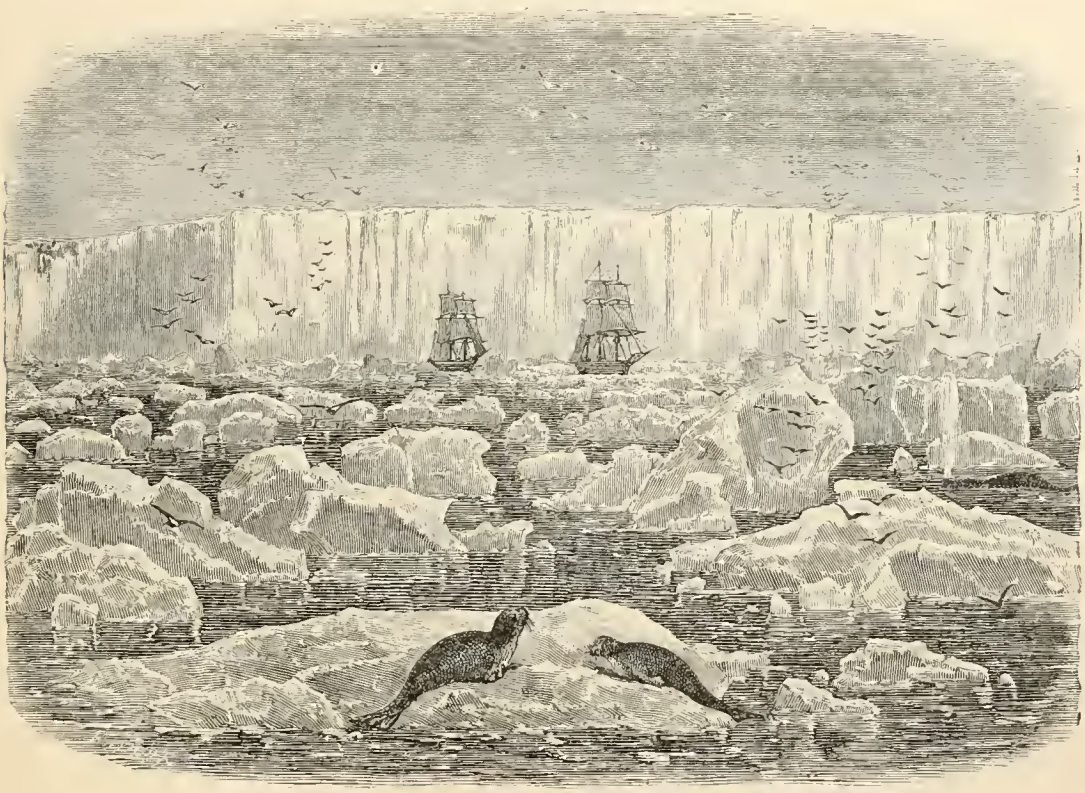
the electoral vote of New England, of Delaware, and a part of that of Maryland, all the rest went to Jackson, who thus received a hundred and seventy-eight to Adams' eighty-three. Calhoun was re-elected to the vice-presidency.

The younger Adams left the country in a highly satisfactory condition. The national debt had been diminished, and there was a surplus of more than five millions of dollars. An epoch of progress, development and prosperity had begun.

CHAPTER XXVII.

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION. 1829–1837.

ANDREW JACKSON was a leading actor in the history of his country, long before he was honored with the highest office in the gift of the people. He was born in Union County, North Carolina, on the 15th of March, 1767. Jackson himself believed



ICE-BARRIER OF THE ANTARCTIC CONTINENT.

that his birth-place was in South Carolina, but it has been proven that it was a little on the North Carolina side of the line.

His father was an Irishman, the son of a linen-draper near Carrickfergus, Ulster, the ancestors of the latter being Scotch. The mother of Andrew Jackson was left a widow five days after his birth. She was poor, and it was hard work for her to find the means of educating her three boys. Andrew was as fond of fighting as Decatur, and when only thirteen years old, as you may recall, he took part in the battle of Hanging Rock. The

eldest brother was killed while fighting for his country, and the other brother died of a wound inflicted, it is said, by a British officer, because the boy refused, when a prisoner, to do menial duty for him. Andrew also received a wound, because he too refused. He took small-pox and was left to die, but his mother secured his release and he got well. His mother died of fever while on her way home from Charleston, whither she had gone to take some necessaries to friends on board a prison-ship. When the Revolution ended, Andrew, therefore, was the sole survivor of the family. He studied law, and at the age of twenty-one went to Nashville. The outrages of the Indians brought him to the field, where he so distinguished himself that the savages named him Sharp Knife and Pointed Arrow.

In 1796 he was a member from Tennessee of the house of representatives, and the following year was advanced to the senate. He sat there a year without making a speech or casting a vote. Then he resigned and went home, where he had been appointed a judge of the supreme court of Tennessee, and major-general of the militia. You have been told of the part he played in the Creek War, and in that of 1812, by which he gained such a high military reputation.

The aggressive spirit of Jackson marked him in boyhood. One of his early playmates remarked that he was the only bully he ever knew who was not a coward. He seemed to have a quarrel on his hands all the time.

His duel with Charles Dickinson, of Tennessee, in 1806, was one of the most fearful conflicts of the kind. Dickinson first wounded Jackson, who then shot him dead. He resolutely concealed his own hurt to prevent his dying antagonist the satisfaction of knowing he had hit him. Jackson always kept the pistol with which he shot his foe, and was proud to show it, for Dickinson's skill in pistol shooting was almost marvelous, and no one ever could understand how it was he failed to kill Jackson.

However, we must not spend too long a time on the personal history of this extraordinary man. With all his faults of temper, he was inflexibly honest, patriotic, and in his latter days, religious. He was chivalrous toward women, and pure in his private life. I certainly have said enough about "Old Hickory" to show you why he was so popular through the country.

One of the first acts of the new president was to appoint personal friends to his cabinet. Martin Van Buren was made secretary of state; Samuel D. Ingham, secretary of the treasury; John H. Eaton, secretary of war; John Branch, secretary of the navy, and John McPherson Berrien, attorney-general.

Jackson went further than Jefferson in regard to removals from office. "To the victors belong the spoils," was his doctrine, and he lived up to it without any thought of the modern idea of civil-service reform. During his eight years of office, Jackson turned six hundred and ninety persons out of office, and, counting those who in turn were dismissed by his appointees, the total could not have been short of two thousand. Jackson's predecessor had removed only seventy-four.

It was at that time decided that the postmaster-general should be a cabinet officer, and William T. Barry was appointed to the place.

Jackson was fortunate in entering upon his duties at a time when the country was

tranquil and prosperous. In 1830 the revenue of the government was twenty-four million dollars, while the expenses were a little more than one-half that sum. During that year, a treaty of commerce was made with Great Britain, by which the English ports in the West Indies, South America, the Bahamas and the Bermudas were opened to American vessels, and our own ports were made free to British vessels coming from those places. A treaty was also signed at Constantinople between the United States and Turkey, securing to us the free navigation of the Black Sea and the trade of the Turkish Empire.

There were no events of note in 1831, but they came fast enough in the following year. It was impossible that a man of such positive convictions as President Jackson could hold his office long without causing a turmoil. He did not like the United States Bank. In his first annual message, delivered in December, 1829, he argued it had failed to establish a uniform and sound currency, and that its existence was contrary to the spirit of the constitution. In January, 1832, a petition was read in the senate, asking for the renewal of the charter of the bank, which would expire in 1836. The committee to whom was referred the petition reported in favor of renewing the charter for fifteen years. After a prolonged debate such a bill passed both houses of Congress, during the summer. President Jackson vetoed it, and the necessary two-thirds could not be got to pass it over his veto.

The fight of Jackson against the Bank of the United States was one of the most exciting events of his administration, the whole country taking sides on the question. At the beginning of the session of 1832–33, the president openly declared his doubts of the solvency of the institution, and advised the removal of the deposits of public money. These deposits were subject to the order of the secretary of the treasury, who was required to give Congress his reasons for removing the deposits. Jackson believed that the bank was buying up members of Congress, so that at the next session the two-thirds vote would be at command, and the bill would be passed over his veto. It was necessary, therefore, to cripple the bank before the next meeting of Congress. He ordered Secretary William J. Duane to remove the deposits; the secretary refused, and Jackson removed *him*. Roger B. Taney, afterward chief justice of the United States, was appointed in his place, and the transfer was made, the deposits being placed in several banks that had been selected. In his fight, therefore, with the great corporation, Jackson triumphed.

It was at the height of the excitement that the presidential election of 1832 took place. Jackson's course respecting the bank had made him so popular that out of a total electoral vote of two hundred and eighty-six, he received two hundred and nineteen. Henry Clay had forty-nine, John Floyd eleven, and William Wirt, seven.

William Wirt was known as the Anti-Masonic candidate, and it was expected that Henry Clay would gain a large support from those who were opposed to that order. Freemasonry is the most popular secret order in the world. In its lodge rooms, Indians, Mussulmans, Jews, Christians, and the most violent political opponents meet in perfect friendship and brotherhood. But during the first administration of President Jackson an incident occurred that imperiled the

existence of Free Masonry. In 1826 William Morgan, a member of the order in the western part of New York, attempted to reveal its secrets. His design was to publish them in a book, of which he thought he could sell a large number. The true course for the Masons would have been to pay no attention to him, for had he printed the secrets, it would have been a confession that he had violated his oath, and he could not have expected anyone to believe him. At the same time, it would have been easy for the Masons to make such changes as would have rendered Morgan's revelations harmless. A number of the Masons in the western part of New York took that sensible view of the case.

THE MOB FIRING CANNON BEFORE THE COURT-HOUSE WHERE M'LEOD WAS IMPRISONED.

But William Morgan disappeared. By some it was said he had been sent out of the

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country, and it was claimed years afterward that he was seen in South America. There was the best reason, however, for believing that some Masons had murdered him. It was said that he was hurried into a carriage one dark night and taken to Niagara River, where he was set adrift in a boat and sent over the Falls. A few years

ago, the late Thurlow Weed gave the name of the person who confessed to him that he had a hand in the murder of Morgan; so there is little doubt that a crime was committed for which there can not be the least excuse.

In consequence, a strong wave of opposition to Freemasonry swept over the country. Many lodges were broken up, and a great many Free Masons renounced the order. For a time it looked as if the brotherhood was doomed, but the opposition soon died out altogether.

For some years there had been many warring political factions in the country, but now, during Jackson's first term, the partisan elements crystallized into what became known as the *whig* and *democratic* parties. The old federal party, which, it may be said, organized the government, gradually weakened until at last it disappeared. The anti-federalists had opposed the national constitution and the policies of Washington and the elder Adams, and, under the name of *republicans*, had been the champions of France against Great Britain. Later, they came into power, as the democratic party, under Jefferson. Madison, Monroe and John Quincy Adams were members of this party, but disintegrating elements were at work under Adams. Jackson's aggressive course alarmed many, and gathered all the opposing elements into a compact body under the leadership of Henry Clay and Daniel Webster. This new organization was called the *whig* party — a name taken from the old Scotch covenanters and English republicans of the seventeenth century, worn by the patriots during the Revolution as opposed to the tories, and finally assumed by the foes of the Jeffersonian democracy.

It is not often that a government is embarrassed by having too much money. But during Jackson's administration it was found that the public debt would soon be paid off, and that there would be a surplus flowing into the treasury. To prevent this, Henry Clay pressed a bill through Congress in 1832, by which the tariff was reduced except where it came in conflict with home labor. Some years later the surplus revenue, amounting to twenty-eight millions of dollars, was divided among the states.

There were living in the Territory of Wisconsin, during Jackson's administration, three Indian tribes known as the Sacs, Foxes and Winnebagoes. A treaty had been made with the Sacs and Foxes in 1830, by which their lands in Illinois were ceded to the United States; but they would not leave that section, and Governor Reynolds, of Illinois, called out a military force to remove them beyond the Mississippi. Black Hawk was the famous leader of the Sacs, and the following year he came back with a strong force of warriors. He was driven away by the troops at Rock Island, but in March, 1832, he returned, this time at the head of a thousand warriors from the three tribes I have named.

War broke out and villages and settlements were burned, and frightful massacres were committed. The inhabitants fled in terror, just as the pioneers fled two centuries before, when the red men burst upon the first settlements in Virginia. The danger was so serious that generals Scott and Atkinson were sent from Buffalo with re-enforcements to Rock Island. The year 1832 saw our first visitation of cholera of which we hear so much nowadays. The troops were not long on the steamers from Buffalo when the disease broke out among them, and many died. The others landed, and a large number fled

into the woods in the hope of escaping the scourge. Numbers perished from starvation as well as from the disease. Scott found his forces so weakened that he could go no further. Atkinson, however, by strenuous efforts pushed on, and in August routed the Indians. Among the prisoners taken were Black Hawk and his two sons. They were sent in irons to Fort Jefferson, and were afterward taken to Washington, where they had an interview with President Jackson. They signed a treaty, giving up all claim to the lands for which they had fought, and they agreed to move to the western side of the Mississippi. Black Hawk and his brother chiefs were then taken on a tour through the United States, in order to impress them with the folly of trying to overcome the white people. The red men were struck with the greatness of the American nation, and when set free gave no further trouble.

You will admit from what I have related that the events of 1832 were of a stirring character, indeed, but the most important of all remains to be told. You have learned how unpopular the tariff was in the South, where the only result was to raise the price of goods. The southern states were angered by the tariff of 1828. Georgia protested in the most solemn manner against it. In 1830, senators Robert Y. Hayne, of South Carolina, and Daniel Webster, of New Hampshire, held their famous debate, which was caused by this disturbing question. Webster's speech was one of the most eloquent ever delivered on the floor of Congress. His plea for the Union was a masterpiece, which has been repeated again and again in thousands of school houses by budding young orators, and it has thrilled myriads of hearts with patriotic love for their country.

In the spring of 1832, Congress passed an act imposing additional duties on imported goods. South Carolina flamed with indignation. On the 19th of November, a convention was held in that state, over which Governor Hamilton presided. This assemblage declared the tariff acts unconstitutional, and therefore null and void; that the duty should not be paid, and that any attempt on the part of the government to collect it would be resisted by arms, and cause the secession of South Carolina from the Union, and its erection into an independent government.

The state legislature shortly afterward indorsed the resolutions of the convention, and advised the authorities to ask for the withdrawal of certain United States troops stationed there to guard against a rising of the slaves. The South Carolinians began to make ready for war, so that when Congress came together again in the fall the outlook was dark.

Now, although President Jackson was a thorough believer in state rights, he was an ardent friend of the Union. Nothing in the world could make him say a word against it, nor would he tolerate any such words or acts on the part of others. He swore in his most vehement manner that the Union should be preserved, and that he would hang as high as Haman, those who dared to attempt treason. He even threatened with arrest Vice-president Calhoun, who you remember was a native of South Carolina. Calhoun resigned his office and became a United States senator.

On the 10th of December, the president issued a proclamation in which he denied the right of a state to nullify any act of Congress, and warned those engaged in stirring up rebellion that the laws of the United States would be enforced by military power if

necessary. As chief magistrate of the Union he said he could not escape the performance of such duty, even if inclined, and the laws would be executed at any cost. He

DANIEL WEBSTER.

exhorted the rebellious people to desist from their opposition, and called upon the citizens of the United States to support him in upholding the constitution.

But his stirring appeal was partly thrown away, for in South Carolina the war preparations continued. The governor was authorized to accept the services of volunteers;

old arms were put in order and new ones contracted for; fortifications were ordered to be repaired; the young ladies engaged in making palmetto cockades, while the men were equally busy in drilling; the Star Spangled Banner was raised union down, and some of the regiments had fashioned a banner to be unfurled as soon as secession should be proclaimed.

President Jackson was not alarmed by these preparations, nor by the defiance of Governor Hamilton of South Carolina. General Winfield Scott was summoned to Washington, and it was resolved to throw a strong garrison into Fort Moultrie, Castle Pinckney and the arsenal at Augusta, Georgia. The sloop-of-war *Natchez* and several revenue cutters were ordered to Charleston harbor. When the citizens learned that they were coming, they threw up fortifications and prepared to blow them out of water.

General Scott, a man of rare discretion, went thither with a strong military and naval force. It would have been the easiest thing in the world for him to bring about a bloody conflict. He kept up friendly relations, however, with the citizens, and often invited them to the forts.

Meanwhile, South Carolina soon saw that she stood alone in her defiance of the government. The president's proclamation found supporters even in the "Palmetto State," where a party called "Friends of the Union," gained many members. As to the question of nullification, the legislatures of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Delaware, Indiana, Tennessee and Missouri condemned it. Virginia passed soothing resolutions, and sent them by special messenger to South Carolina. North Carolina and Alabama denounced nullification, but declared the tariff unconstitutional. Georgia did the same, and proposed a convention of the states of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee and Mississippi to devise means of relief.

Calhoun, who had succeeded Hayne in the senate, favored a compromise bill that Clay had prepared to meet the trouble. The feeling was such that the compromise measure met with favor in all quarters. It provided for a gradual reduction of duties until the 30th of June, 1842, when they were to sink to a general level of twenty per cent. The manufacturers could thus prepare for the change, and the non-manufacturing states were sure of relief at no distant day.

In speaking of the Indian Territory, I should have told you that it was organized in 1834, and was intended to be the home of the different tribes that were removed beyond the Mississippi. Fifty years ago it was much larger than it is to-day. No doubt the time will come when it will wholly disappear, for the American race must perish sooner or later from the face of the earth.

President Jackson acted in a characteristic manner toward France. The government of that country had agreed to pay by installments some five million dollars on account of spoliations of American commerce under the Berlin and Milan decrees of Napoleon. France was so dilatory in keeping her promise that the wrath of Jackson was roused, and, in his message to Congress at the opening of the session of 1834–5, he recommended that reprisals should be made on French commerce in case of further delay. At the same time, he directed the American minister in Paris to demand his

passports and come home. The indemnity was paid, and a similar course toward Portugal brought that government also to terms.

There was more trouble with the Indians. Toward the close of 1835, the Seminoles of Florida began a series of attacks on the settlers on the frontier. They were the most resolute of all, and were under the leadership of their head sachem Micanopy, and a famous half-breed, Osceola. A great many runaway slaves made their way to the swamps of Florida, where they settled among the Seminoles. They intermarried, and became so attached to their wild life that they were ready to fight for it. By the treaty of Payne's Landing, signed in May, 1832, it was agreed that seven chiefs of the Seminoles should visit the country assigned to the Creeks, west of the Mississippi, and report thereon. If the section was found satisfactory, and there was reason to believe the two tribes could live together in peace, the Seminoles were to remove thither within three years, giving up all their lands in Florida, and receiving fifteen thousand dollars and an annuity, together with certain supplies. It was further stipulated that the demands for slaves and other property stolen or destroyed by the Seminoles should be inquired into, and if found true, should be paid by the United States to the extent of seven thousand dollars.

In 1834, General Wiley Thompson was sent by Jackson to Florida, with orders to remove the Seminoles, by force if necessary. He found them unwilling to go, and told them that their annuities would be stopped unless they did so. General Thompson said it was impossible not to feel a sympathy for the Indians, so strongly did they cling to their homes. They promised to leave in the spring of 1835, but, when that time came, declared they could not leave their homes and the graves of their fathers.

Osceola was so defiant that General Thompson lost patience, and put him in irons. Very soon the chief said he would submit, and he was released. He signed the treaty of removal, and General Thompson had no doubt of his sincerity. But Osceola had been deceiving the general from the first. He was burning with rage over the insult he had received, and the impending removal of his people. Bursting upon the exposed settlements, he swept every thing before him in a tempest of blood and fire.

The danger was so imminent that General Clinch, stationed at Fort Drane, in the interior of Florida, was believed to be in peril of massacre. Major Dade was sent from Fort Brooke at the head of Tampa Bay to his relief. He had with him about a hundred and forty mounted men. When they reached the Big Withlacoochee, they received such a murderous volley from a large force of Indians concealed in the tall grass that Major Dade and half his men were shot from their saddles. The rest sheltered themselves behind trees, and with the aid of a six-pounder and grape-and-canister drove off the Indians. Knowing the latter were likely to come back, the soldiers hurriedly made a breastwork of logs. Sooner than was suspected the warriors returned in overwhelming numbers, and poured a continuous torrent of bullets from every direction upon the whites, until every one was shot down. The Seminoles then gathered the arms and accouterments and left. They were hardly out of sight, when a band of negroes came up and butchered all the wounded except two, who managed to escape, but who afterward died of their wounds.

On the day of this massacre, December 28, Osceola and a few warriors were prowling around Fort King, on the Ocklawaha. General Thompson and nine of his friends were dining in a house some distance from the fort. You know the climate is mild in Florida, and, though it was near the middle of winter, the windows were up, so that the officers could be seen from the outside as they sat at the table. Suddenly Osceola and his warriors ran up, and aiming through a window, fired at the officers. Five of them fell from their chairs to the floor. Among them was General Thompson, whose body was pierced by many bullets. The Indians rushed into the house and scalped the five before the garrison at the fort could prevent, though the distance was only two hundred yards.

The war became of the most furious character, extending to the villages in Georgia and Alabama. General Scott assumed command in Florida in 1836, and in the fall operations were pushed with more vigor, but the troops suffered severe losses in following the Seminoles into the swamps. General Zachary Taylor took charge in May, 1837, and an unsuccessful attempt was made to use bloodhounds in trailing the Indians.

On the 21st of October, 1837, Osceola, with a number of chiefs and seventy warriors, entered the camp of General Jessup under the protection of a flag of truce. In violation of the usages of war, they were seized and sent prisoners to Charleston. Osceola was confined in Fort Moultrie, where he died in 1838.

The Seminole war dragged along, the Indians fighting with such persistent courage that it was not until General William J. Worth took charge and destroyed their crops that they yielded. This was in 1842. It had lasted seven years and cost forty million dollars and a large number of lives.

The Seminole war has carried us beyond the administration of Jackson, and we must now go back and give the other events that marked his rule.

The president being determined to remove the deposits from the United States Bank, distributed them among the other banks that had been selected. The amount of the money thus withdrawn was about ten million dollars. The action of Jackson was denounced in the severest terms. In the senate, a powerful party led by Webster, Calhoun and Clay was formed against him. The new officers that the president named to carry out his measures were rejected. Then a resolution censuring his course was introduced and passed the senate, though it failed in the house of representatives. Jackson did not attach a feather's weight to this opposition, and in the face of threats and entreaties, went on in the course he had marked out. The resolution of censure stood on the journal of the senate for four years, when, through the influence of Senator Benton, of Missouri, it was expunged from the record.

Two states, Arkansas and Michigan, were added to the Union during the administration of Jackson.

On the night of December 16, 1835, the city of New York was visited by the most destructive fire that has ever occurred in the metropolis. It broke out at No. 25 Merchant street (running from Pearl street into Exchange street, near the then post office building). Upon the discovery of the fire the City Hall bell and the fire bells were rung, and the men of the Volunteer Fire Department dragged their machines to the

scene, aided by many other citizens, but the engines were of little use. The night was extremely cold, with tempestuous winds, and the streets were covered with snow. Water could be obtained only from the river, and as it was pumped into the hose it froze in part and choked the flow. The firemen worked zealously, stamping upon the hose to break the ice and laboring at the pumps, but soon found that their efforts were totally without effect, and turned from their unavailing labors at the machines to the saving of property. Many of the buildings were new store-

CUBAN FILLIBUSTERS ON THE MARCH.

houses with iron shutters and copper roofs, and so intense was the heat of the conflagration that the metal was melted and ran off the roofs in streams. The harbor was lighted up brilliantly, the water being described by a chron-

CAPTURE OF OSCEOLA. (*See page 325*)

icler of the events as looking like blood. The gale was toward the East River, and the tendency of the destructive flames was in that direction, though the flames spread also toward the north and south. In all, seventeen blocks of buildings were burned, covering thirteen acres of ground. The number of buildings destroyed was 648.

Ex-President Monroe died on the 4th of July, 1831, being the third president who died on Independence Day. His death took place at the home of his son-in-law, Samuel L. Gouverneur, in New York City. His remains were deposited with public honors in the Marble Cemetery on Second street, where they reposed until 1858, when they were removed to Hollywood Cemetery in Richmond, Virginia. They rest in a beautiful place overlooking the James River Falls above Richmond, in a vault of brick and granite.

The following year Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, Maryland, the last surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence, died at the great age of ninety-six years. Within a short period Philip Freneau, the poet of the Revolution, also departed at the age of eighty. On the 24th of June, 1833, the famous John Randolph, of Roanoke, died in the city of Philadelphia. You have been told considerable about this remarkable man, whose wit and sarcasm were dreaded by every one with whom he came in contact. At his death he liberated all his slaves to the number of three hundred.

Chief Justice Marshall died in 1835, when he had reached the age of four score, and Ex-President Madison followed on the 28th of June, 1836. Madison was the last survivor of the signers of the constitution of the United States He was about eighty-five years old. His remains rest at Montpelier, four miles from Orange Court House, Virginia. The grave is in the center of a large field, in a lot about one hundred feet square, surrounded by a brick wall.

President Jackson, following the example of Washington, issued a farewell address. It was of the most patriotic character, and was the last of his public papers. His final official act, however, caused much dissatisfaction. With the purpose of checking speculation in foreign lands, a circular was sent out by the treasury department on the 11th of July, 1836, requiring all the collectors of the public revenues to receive nothing but gold and silver in payment. The result was such a hampering of business that early in 1837 Congress sanctioned a partial repeal. Jackson being resolved not to sign the bill, kept it in his possession until after Congress adjourned, thus preventing its becoming a law.

The presidential candidates in the fall of 1836 were Martin Van Buren, democrat, who received 170 electoral votes; William Henry Harrison, whig, 73 votes; Hugh L. White, whig, 26 votes; Daniel Webster, whig, 14 votes; W. P. Mangum, whig, 11 votes. No candidate for the vice-presidency having secured a majority in the electoral college, the senate elected Colonel Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, to that office.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION. 1837–1841.

MARTIN VAN BUREN, the eighth president of the United States, was born at Kinderhook, N. Y., on the 5th of December, 1782, five days after the signing of the preliminary articles of peace between Great Britain and her former colonies, by which the independence of our country was secured. You will observe, therefore, that he was the first president not born a British subject. He received a limited education, became a student of law, and before reaching his majority, was an influential democratic politician. At the age of eighteen he was sent as a delegate to the nominating convention of that party. In 1812, and again in 1816, he was elected to the state senate, and from 1815 to 1819, was attorney-general of New York. From 1821 to 1828 he represented New York in the national senate, resigning during the latter year in order to accept the governorship of his native state. In 1829, he was appointed secretary of state by Andrew Jackson, holding the office until 1831, when he was made minister to England. In December of that year, however, when his nomination came before the senate, it was rejected through the influence of Calhoun, Clay and Webster, on the ground that while secretary of state he had pursued a weak course toward England, respecting the questions of trade between her West India colonies and America. Van Buren was then in England and he could not avoid the humiliating necessity of coming home. He had his revenge, however, for the same year that he arrived he became the candidate of his party for the vice-presidency, and was elected to preside over the very senate which a short time before refused to confirm him as minister to England.

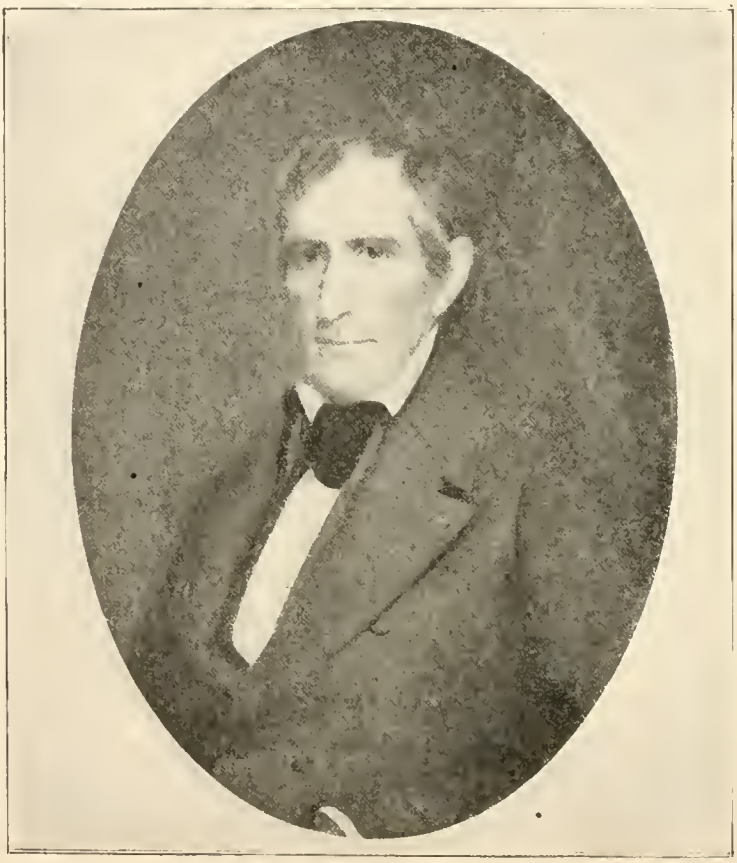
Van Buren was a strong believer in the doctrine of state rights, but was opposed to universal suffrage. He thought every voter should have some qualification beside that of age, and believed that each elector should be a householder. These views were not popular with the masses, yet you will notice that he got along very well in the face of that fact. He was an opponent of Jackson when the latter first ran for the presidency, but became his ardent friend, and in 1828 did a great deal toward securing the support of New York for the hero of New Orleans. He abominated the principles of John Quincy Adams, and did such good services for Jackson that the latter not only rewarded him in the way of political appointments, but aided in making him president.

At Van Buren's inauguration on the 4th of March, 1837, he was escorted from the presidential mansion to the capitol by a body of infantry and cavalry and a large number of civilians. He and Jackson rode in a phaeton made from the wood of the frigate *Constitution*. John Forsyth, Jackson's secretary of state, was continued in that

office through Van Buren's administration, as were most of the members of the cabinet of his predecessor, while in the main the policy of the two were the same.

You must not forget that when Van Buren came into power, the Seminole war was at its height. Osceola was not yet taken prisoner, and many of the incidents of that war were yet to come.

The administration of Van Buren came at an unfortunate period for him. The bad effect of many of Jackson's despotic acts was not fully felt until his successor came into office. The removal of the public funds from the United States Bank in 1833–4,



WM. HENRY HARRISON.

and the issue of the specie circular in 1836, bore their baleful fruit during Van Buren's term. Business was disarranged, unhealthy speculation prevailed, and borrowed capital was made the basis for vast operations. The surplus in the treasury of the United States, after the national debt was paid, was distributed among the different states, and this added to the craze for speculation. The credit system was adopted everywhere, and the banks of the country were multiplied to nearly seven hundred. Enormous issues of irredeemable money were set afloat, and the chances for fraud vastly increased.

Van Buren was hardly in office when the crash came. Mercantile houses failed by hundreds, the banks suspended specie payment, and disaster swept through every form

of trade. During the months of March and April, 1837, the failures in New York and New Orleans alone amounted to a hundred and fifty million dollars.

A deputation of merchants and bankers waited on the president, early in May, and asked him to put off the collection of duties on imported goods, to rescind the specie circular, and to call an extraordinary session of Congress to adopt measures of relief. The president consented to defer the collection of duties, but he would not repeal the specie circular nor call an extra session of Congress. Two days later all the banks in the city of New York suspended specie payments, and the other banks through the country were prompt in doing the same. Within a week the legislature of New York passed an act authorizing the suspension of specie payments for a year. The deposit-banks having stopped redeeming their notes in coin, the government found itself without the means of paying its own obligations, except by using the third installment of the surplus revenue which had been ordered to be paid to the several states.

The condition of the country became so alarming that the president convened Congress on the 4th of September. In his official message he proposed the establishment of an independent treasury for the safe-keeping of the public funds, and their entire separation from banking institutions. A bill to that effect passed the senate but was defeated in the lower house. It was afterward re-introduced, and became a law in 1840. During the extraordinary session, Congress passed a bill authorizing the issue of treasury notes to the extent of ten millions of dollars. This, in the nature of things, could be only a temporary expedient. The business of the country slowly righted itself as more healthy methods of trade were adopted. During the year 1838 most of the banks resumed specie payments; commercial affairs improved, though it was a long time before business recovered from the shock it had received. Discontent and suffering were wide spread, and perhaps it was no more than natural that the people should blame the administration for every thing.

In the latter part of 1837, a rebellion broke out in Canada. Lower Canada especially was disturbed. In 1791, the English Parliament divided Canada into an upper and a lower province. Each was constituted with a governor, an executive council nominated by the crown, a legislative council appointed for life in the same way, and a representative assembly elected for four years by popular vote. The powers of the state were ill-adjusted, and the assemblies of the two provinces became bitterly opposed to their governors and irresponsible councils. For five years no provision had been made by the legislature of Lower Canada to pay for administering the government in the province. During four years the payments in arrears had amounted to a large sum, the assembly refused to provide for it, and demanded an elected legislative council, and complete control over all branches of the government. The British Parliament was willing to make some concessions, but not to the extent demanded.

Naturally the people of the United States, and especially in New York, sympathized with the insurgents. Seven hundred men from that state seized and fortified Navy Island, in Niagara river. The loyalists of Canada tried to capture the place, but failed; but on the night of December 29, 1837, they cut loose and attacked the supply-steamer *Caroline*, killed twelve of the defenders, set the boat on fire and sent her over the falls.

This event increased the excitement, and there seemed danger that the peaceful relations between Great Britain and this country would be broken. The president issued a proclamation of neutrality, forbidding all interference with Canada, and General Wool was sent to the frontier with a force strong enough to compel an obedience to the proclamation. He obliged the New York insurgents on Navy Island to surrender, and the flurry was soon ended.

Quiet was no more than fairly restored when the people began to think about choosing the next president. The administration of Van Buren was one of the least brilliant in the history of our country. There seemed to be a reaction from the stirring vigor of Jackson's rule, and the president was blamed for the hard times, high prices, bankruptcy, and every thing that did not suit the people.

The Whigs met at Harrisburg, December 4, 1839, and the convention was an enthusiastic one. When the balloting began, Henry Clay received one hundred and three, General Harrison ninety-four, and General Scott fifty-seven votes. General Harrison gained the nomination on the fifth ballot, while John Tyler, of Virginia, was nominated for the vice-presidency.

On the 4th of May following, the democratic convention met in Baltimore and unanimously renominated Van Buren. No nomination for vice-president was made, but later Richard M. Johnson and James K. Polk were named in several of the states for that office.

On the day the democratic convention met in Baltimore to renominate Van Buren, the whigs held a popular gathering there, at which twenty thousand young men were present. They came from all parts of the country, fully a thousand going from the single state of Massachusetts. When the hurrahing young whigs adjourned, it was to meet in Washington on the following 4th of March, to attend the inauguration of Harrison.

The wild canvass was hardly under way, when the *Baltimore Republican* said of General Harrison that if some one would pension him with a few hundred dollars and give him a barrel of hard cider he would sit down in his log-cabin and be content for the rest of his life. You know how such an accidental expression has changed the course of events; and this was realized in the presidential canvass of 1884. The sneer at General Harrison was caught up, and became the key-note of the campaign. Log-cabins were erected in villages, towns and cities, and ardent whigs drank hard cider and sang and shouted for "Tippecanoe and Tyler too." No one can estimate the amount of cider drank during that extraordinary campaign. It must have grieved thousands of good temperance folk that amid such orgies Harrison and Tyler were swept into the White House. The democrats carried Alabama, Arkansas, Illinois, Missouri, New Hampshire, Virginia and South Carolina, whose electoral votes amounted to sixty. The whigs triumphed in every other state, electing their candidates by a majority of two hundred and thirty-four. The democratic party, after holding the reins of government for nearly forty years, was displaced for a time.

CHAPTER XXIX.

ADMINISTRATION OF HARRISON AND TYLER. 1841–1845.

GENERAL WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON was born in Virginia in February, 1773. He was the adopted son of Robert Morris, the financier of the Revolution, and the son of Benjamin Harrison, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and later governor of Virginia. He graduated from Hampden-Sidney College, and was afterward a student of medicine. Attracted by a military life, he entered the army of St. Clair, and his skill led to his rapid promotion. He was appointed secretary of the Northwest Territory in 1797, and elected as its first delegate to Congress in 1799. He was afterward made governor of Indiana Territory. Of the brilliant part he played in the war of 1812 you have already learned. He was a United States senator from 1825 to 1828, and was then appointed minister to the Republic of Columbia, in South America.

President Harrison was inaugurated March 4, 1841. In his inaugural address, he dwelt on the undue powers which had lately been exercised by the federal government, and pledged himself to do his utmost to arrest the monarchical tendency of the times. He was in favor of the ineligibility of a president to re-election, and his address was thoughtful and well-timed. He called a special session of Congress to consider matters relating to the finances of the country, and organized an able cabinet, at the head of which was Daniel Webster as secretary of state.

President Harrison rode to his inauguration on horseback, and stood bareheaded and without an overcoat while delivering his inaugural. He contracted pneumonia, which was aggravated by further imprudence. Thousands insisted upon shaking his hand, advising and congratulating him, and he was beset by an army of office-seekers. He had withstood the hardships and perils of the frontier, but at last his strong frame gave way. He died on the 4th of April, just one month after his inauguration. His last words heard by Dr. Washington were: "Sir, I wish you to understand the true principles of government. I wish them carried out; I ask nothing more."

A procession two miles long escorted the body to its temporary resting-place in the Congressional burying-ground. The remains of President Harrison now rest at North Bend, Ohio, a few yards from the tunnel of the Illinois Central Railroad. The grave is on a little knoll, and is a simple mound, unfenced, and shaded by beeches. There is no monument and no inscription anywhere to tell the story of "Old Tippecanoe."

Harrison was the first president to die in office. As provided by the constitution, the vice-president, John Tyler, was sworn in as his successor. Tyler, like so many of his predecessors, was a native of Virginia, where he was born in March, 1790. His remarkable ability is shown by the fact that he was practicing law at the age of nineteen, and

was a member of the Virginia legislature at twenty-one. At thirty-five he was elected governor of Virginia. From 1827 to 1836, he was United States senator, and, as you have learned, became president of the United States at the age of fifty-one.

The special session of Congress lasted from May till September. One of its first

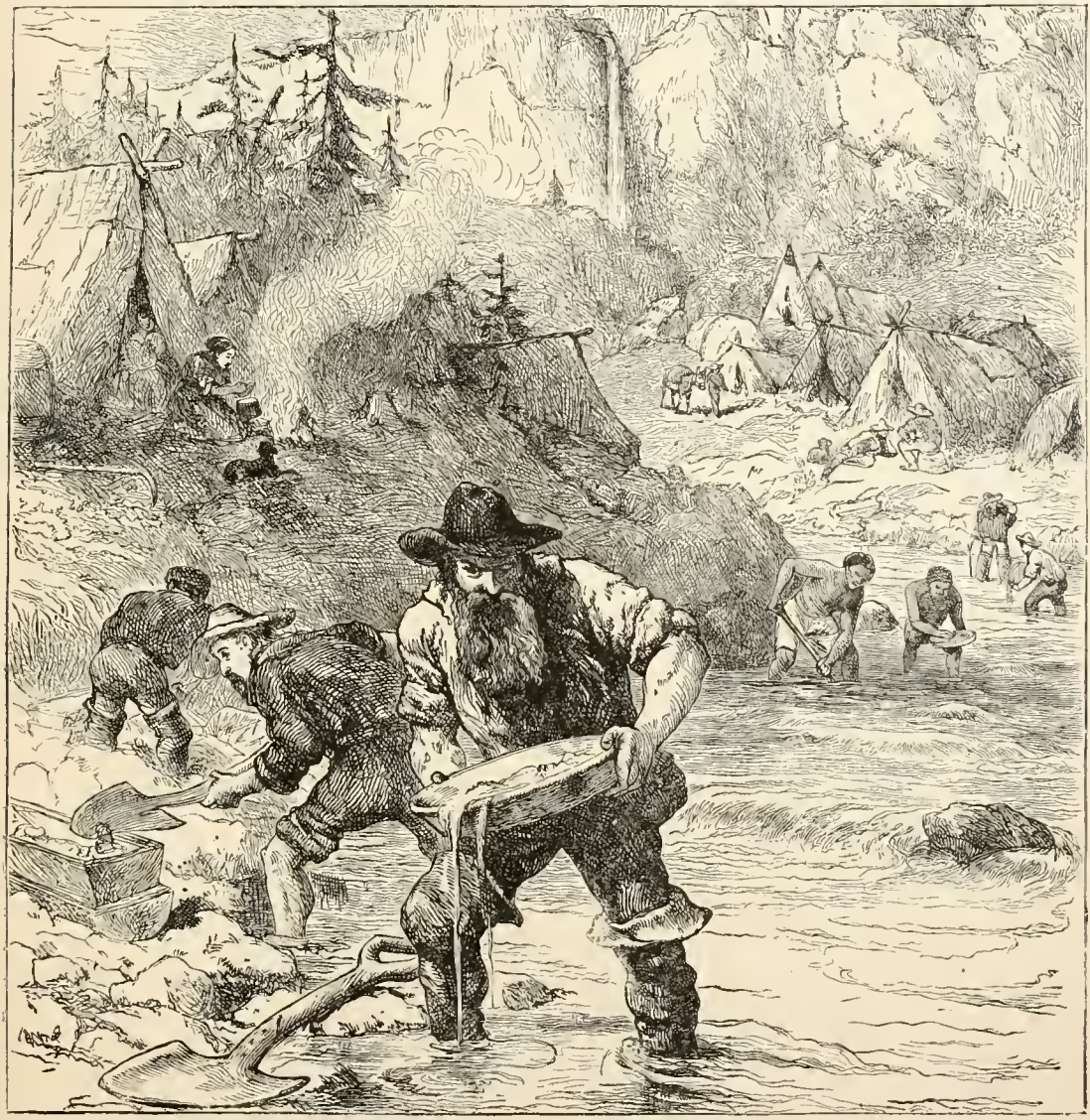
J. C. Fremont.

PORTRAIT AND AUTOGRAPH OF FREMONT.

acts was the repeal of the independent-treasury bill. A general bankrupt-law was enacted, by which a great many insolvent business men were relieved from the disabilities of debt. Then the whigs brought forward an act to re-establish the United States Bank. The old charter had expired in 1836, but the bank had continued in operation under the authority of the state of Pennsylvania. The bill to re-charter the bank was passed, but to the astonishment of every one the president vetoed it. Having been

modified to meet his views, it was passed again; but, when submitted to the president, he vetoed it once more.

The incensed whigs declared that the president was a traitor to the party that elected him, and in many places he was burned in effigy. His cabinet resigned, with



GOLD-WASHING IN CALIFORNIA.

the exception of Daniel Webster; whereupon, President Tyler, in September, formed a new cabinet, consisting of Mr. Webster in his former position; Walter Forward, secretary of the treasury; Abel P. Upshur, secretary of the navy; John C. Spencer, secretary of war; Hugh S. Legare, attorney-general; and Charles A. Wickliffe, postmaster-general. At the same time Edward Everett was appointed minister to England. Mr.

Webster kept his place in the cabinet because of the strained relations between our country and England.

The Canadian troubles of which you have been told passed from Van Buren's administration into that of Tyler. Alexander McLeod boasted that he was one of the Canadians who attacked the *Caroline* and set her adrift, and that while making the attack, he killed one of the Yankees. In 1840, he crossed to the American side of the river on business, and was arrested on the charge of murder. Mr. Fox, the English ambassador at Washington, demanded the release of McLeod, insisting that the destruction of the *Caroline* was a public act, that McLeod simply obeyed the orders of his superior officers, and therefore could not be punished by a civil tribunal. The president replied that no answer had as yet been received to the question asked years before, whether the destruction of the *Caroline* was an authorized act of war, and that he had no power to prevent a state court from trying persons indicted within its jurisdiction.

There was some discussion in Congress over the question, and violent language was used toward Great Britain. It was decided, however, to release McLeod on bail; but such a protest was raised that he was again thrown into jail. A guard was placed over the court-house, and the mob gathering in front of the building fired a cannon from time to time as an intimation that they did not mean the prisoner to go free. Finally McLeod was brought to trial, and the state of feeling in Great Britain was such that the danger of war became imminent. On the trial, however, it was proved that McLeod, at the time of the capture and burning of the *Caroline*, was asleep in Chippewa. He was therefore acquitted, though had his boast of killing a Yankee proved true, serious results would have followed.

The old question of the tariff caused much trouble during Tyler's administration. By the act of 1833, introduced by Henry Clay during the nullification excitement, it was decreed that the duties on foreign goods were to reach their minimum on the 30th of June, 1842, when the South would be relieved of the great burden which had caused so much complaint. The time being at hand for such reduction to go into effect, Congress deemed it best to pass a temporary act, June 29th, by which the duties in force on the 1st of that month were extended to the 11th of August, together with the laws for collecting them. This measure was vetoed by President Tyler. Then the revenue or tariff bill was passed by both houses; whereupon, the president notified Congress that he meant, also, to veto that. Another bill, omitting the clause providing for the distribution, among the states, of the funds received from the sale of public lands, was then passed by both houses. This was signed by the president.

Among the leading events of 1842 must be placed the Webster-Ashburton Treaty. The territorial limit of the United States in the north-east, was loosely defined in the treaty of 1783, and had been discussed by the commissioners at Ghent in 1814, with the result of postponing the settlement of the question. It was then agreed to refer the dispute to the decision of three commissions to be jointly constituted by Great Britain and the United States. The first of these commissions completed its work by awarding the islands in Passamaquoddy Bay to the United States. The third body was also successful. It established as the boundary line, from the intersection of the forty-fifth

Signing the Treaty of Traverse des Sioux

Painting by F. D. Millet, N. A.

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MILLET.

THE TREATY OF TRAVERSE Des SIOUX.

FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING OWNED BY STATE OF MINNESOTA.

parallel of latitude with the St. Lawrence, to the western point of Lake Huron. The duty of the second commission was to fix the boundary from the Atlantic to the St. Lawrence. They failed to do so, and for nearly a quarter of a century the dispute between the two nations was more or less violent. Finally the question was referred to Lord Ashburton acting for England, and to Daniel Webster. After much discussion these two eminent men agreed upon a treaty, which was signed in Washington on the 9th of August. By its terms the following was established as the boundary line: From the mouth of the river St. Croix, ascending that stream to its western source; thence, due north to the St. Johns; thence along that river to its source, on the water-shed between the Atlantic and the St. Lawrence; thence south-westerly, along the crest of the highlands, to the north-western source of the Connecticut, and down that stream to and along the forty-fifth parallel, to the St. Lawrence. The boundary also from the western point of Lake Huron, through Lake Superior, to the north-western extremity of the Lake of the Woods; thence, southward to the forty-ninth parallel of latitude, which was followed to the Rocky Mountains.

Much good resulted from the visit of Lord Ashburton to this country. Before the treaty was ratified by the senate, Ashburton and Webster had much correspondence, in the course of which the latter, speaking for the president, acquitted the British government of all blame in the *Caroline* matter, on the ground that England had apologized and expressed her regard for the inviolable character of the neutral rights of America. The English plenipotentiary was received with cordiality everywhere, and, at a banquet in New York, while expressing his gratitude, declared that no war between the two countries could ever again take place.

The interest of the civilized world, for hundreds of years, has been centered around the north pole, to which many expeditions have been sent, with meager results. If you should sail far enough southward, you would find it impossible to approach so near to the south pole, as have many explorers to the northern extremity of the globe. This is because the south pole is walled about by thousands of square miles of impassable mountains of ice. However, our government dispatched an expedition in 1838, to traverse the Southern Ocean. It was under the command of Lieutenant Charles Wilkes, and was absent four years. On his return, in 1842, Wilkes reported that his squadron had sailed nearly ninety thousand miles; that is, far enough to have taken him almost four times around the globe. He had examined the shores of Oregon and California, and for seventeen hundred miles had coasted along the shores of the Antarctic Continent. He sailed as far as 97° 30′ east longitude, discovering a coast line extending over fifty degrees of longitude. The explorers brought back many interesting productions from those regions, but little, if any, practical result followed.

You will be surprised to learn that Rhode Island was governed down to the year 1842 by the charter granted by Charles II. to the colony in 1663. By its terms, the right of suffrage was restricted to those who owned a certain amount of property. So much dissatisfaction had grown up that two parties were formed: one, the suffrage or radical party, and the other the law and order or conservative party. The former adopted a state constitution, elected a legislature, and chose Thomas W. Dorr gov-

ernor. The other party did the same, selecting Samuel W. King for governor. The law and order party were first in the field, and declared their determination to put down what they called a rebellion. A number of arrests were made, and Dorr fled from the state, which was an easy thing to do, since he could not have gone far in any direction without passing over the boundary.

But Dorr soon came back at the head of an armed force with the intention of throwing the little state into civil war. At this point the federal government interfered, and Dorr's forces were dispersed without bloodshed. Dorr left the state three times, and his followers being scattered, the other government was established. By and by, Dorr returned to Rhode Island, when he was arrested and tried for treason. In June, 1844, he was convicted and sentenced to imprisonment for life. He was offered pardon on condition of taking the oath of allegiance, but he stubbornly refused, and finally, in June, 1845, he was unconditionally released. He was not restored to civil rights, however, until several years later.

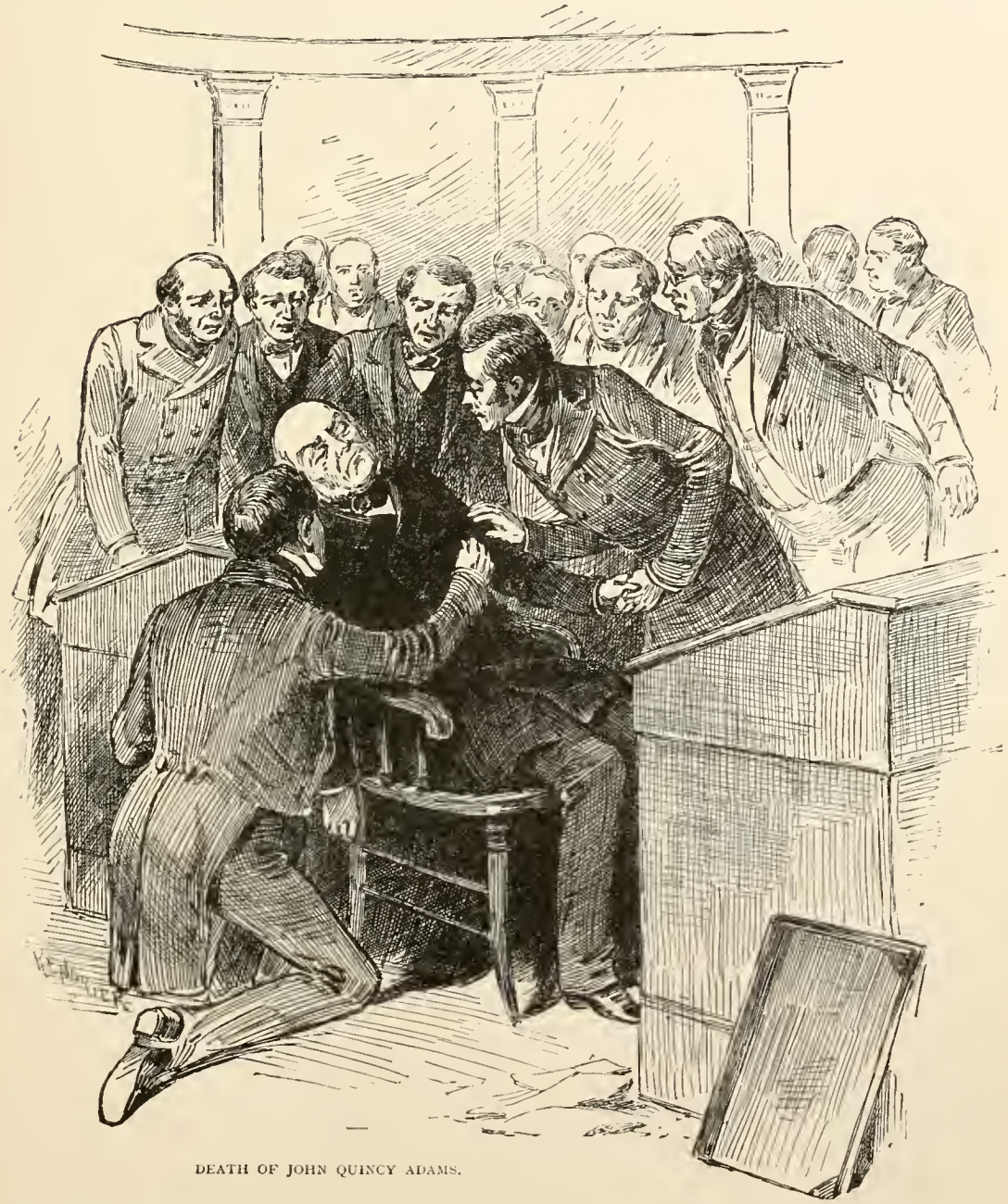
Meanwhile, the legislature had called a convention to draw up a constitution. Its work was rejected by the people in March, 1842. Another convention was called and another constitution formed which was ratified, and went into effect in May, 1843.

I am sure you have not forgotten what you were told in the earlier history of New York about the patroons. They were the Dutch proprietors who took possession of immense tracts of land, and whose privileges equaled those of the feudal lords in England centuries ago. These privileges were transmitted from father to son and were not affected by the War for Independence. The most powerful of these were the Van Rensselaers, two of whom fought on the side of England in the war of 1812. The estates of this family included the greater part of Albany and Rensselaer counties. The lands were divided into farms containing from a hundred to a hundred and sixty acres, which were leased in perpetuity on conditions that were easy in some cases and hard in others. Each tenant was required to pay to the landlord or patroon from ten to twenty-two and a half bushels of wheat, together with four fat fowls and a day's service with wagon and horses. Whenever a tenant sold his lease, he was obliged to pay the landlord one-quarter of the purchase money. Besides, the landlord had an interest in all water-power and an absolute property in all mines.

The progress of republican ideas conflicted with these privileges, but the liberality of old Stephen Van Rensselaer prevented for a long time any outbreak. He died in 1840, at which time $200,000 of back rents were due. His heirs determined to collect this, and then the trouble began.

The demands were resisted; savage fights took place; the military were called out, but the rents were uncollected. Year after year the disturbances continued, until the tenants declared they would pay no rent at all. In the summer of 1844, the eastern towns of Rensselaer County and the Livingston manor of Columbia County were in a state of civil war. Armed men, disguised as Indians, paraded the country, and, by threats, compelled all to adopt their principles. The obnoxious ones were tarred and feathered. The out' ak reached Delaware County, where a deputy-sheriff was murdered while in 'scharge of his duty. The anti-renters could not be suppressed,

and order was not restored until 1846, when Silas Wright, the governor of New York, proclaimed the county of Delaware in a state of insurrection, and, with the help of the



DEATH OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

military, succeeded in arresting the chief of the anti-renters. They were brought to trial, and the murderers of the deputy-sheriff were sentenced to death, though the punishment was afterward commuted to imprisonment for life. Conciliatory measures followed, and the trouble died out.

A sad incident took place toward the close of 1842. J. C. Spencer, secretary of war, had a son serving as midshipman on board the *Somers*, a ten-gun brig, with a crew of about seventy persons, including the officers. While on a cruise Captain Mackenzie learned that a mutinous plot had been formed by young Spencer. He was arrested and on his person were found papers which left no doubt of his guilt. The mutineers had agreed to turn upon the officers and kill every one except the surgeon, and then sail for the vicinity of New York harbor. They intended, on arriving there, to seize the homeward bound packets which they believed contained large amounts of specie. They bound themselves by oath to murder every one on board the packets, so that none could be left to bear witness against them. Young Spencer and two petty officers were hanged at the yard-arm. Captain Mackenzie was afterward tried for his course in the matter, but was acquitted.

On the 28th of February, 1844, Mr. Upshur, secretary of state, Mr. Gilmer, secretary of the navy, and a number of other gentlemen, with several ladies, made an excursion down the Potomac on the steamship *Princeton*. Commodore Stockton was in charge, and for the entertainment of his distinguished guests, ordered the firing of a new and immense gun called the Peacemaker. While thus engaged the piece exploded, killing Mr. Gilmer, Mr. Upshur, Commander Kennon, Virgil Maxey, late minister to The Hague, and several of the visitors. Seventeen sailors were badly wounded, of whom several died. The vessel was immediately anchored opposite Alexandria, and the guests were quickly transferred to a river steamer and taken to Washington. President Tyler ordered the dead bodies to be carried to the Executive Mansion, where they were laid in state in the east room.

The year 1842 was also memorable by the completion of the Bunker Hill Monument. The foundation was laid on the 17th of June, 1825, when, as you have been told, the corner-stone was put in place by the venerable Lafayette. The oration of the day was delivered by Daniel Webster, then young in years and fame. In the throng that listened to his stirring words were two hundred Revolutionary veterans, of whom forty had taken part in the battle fought on that spot just fifty years before.

The monument is thirty-one feet square at the base and two hundred and twenty-one feet high. It was dedicated June 17, 1843. Daniel Webster, in the full glory of his magnificent powers, delivered an oration among the most eloquent that ever fell from human lips. Here and there among the vast throng were a few tottering heroes of the Revolution, and the occasion was one of the most impressive in our history.

Stirring times were approaching. The vast state of Texas, as it stands to-day, was originally a part of Mexico. It was claimed by the United States as belonging to Louisiana, but the claim was abandoned in 1819 in favor of Mexico. Two years later, however, a colony from the United States formed a settlement on both sides of the Colorado, in what was then Mexican Territory. They were encouraged by the local government, and, in 1833, there were ten thousand Americans in Texas. Brave, adventurous and enterprising, they had no patience with the imbecile policy of the Mexicans around them, and they were not long in forming a scheme for wresting Texas from Mexican rule and transferring it to the United States.

BURSTING OF THE CANNON ON THE PRINCETON.

One of the leaders in this daring scheme was General Sam Houston, as unique a character as can be found in American history. He had been a member of Congress, the governor of Tennessee, and had lived among the Indians long enough to become a chief. Hundreds of those that flocked to Texas were desperate outlaws from the states. They carried their bowie-knives, rifles and pistols, and gladly welcomed the prospect of warfare. Among them were the eccentric Davy Crockett, formerly congressman from Tennessee, the brothers James and Rezin Bowie (the latter of whom invented the terrible bowie-knife), Colonel Travis, Albert Sydney Johnston, and others whose courage has never been surpassed.

While President Jackson was obliged officially to discountenance the projects of those who aimed to bring Texas into the American Union, there can be no doubt that he was in favor of the scheme.

Mexico strained every nerve to crush the rising rebellion, but it was impossible to do so. Fighting began in 1835, and was waged with great ferocity by the Mexicans. No men could have fought more bravely than the Texans, but they were often overwhelmed by the "Greasers," as they contemptuously called their enemies, and were slaughtered without mercy.

On the 2d of March, 1836, a convention declared Texas independent. Santa Anna, the president of the Mexican Republic, crossed the Rio Grande with a large force, and reached San Antonio a few days later. There is still standing in that quaint city, a mission-house known as the Alamo. It faces the large plaza or public square, is made of adobes or sun-dried bricks, and is more than a hundred years old. In this building were gathered less than two hundred Texans, who knew of the approach of the Mexican army, twenty times as numerous as themselves. But not one of the defenders thought of fleeing; though, brave as they were, they could not but feel that there was scarcely a shadow of hope that one of them would escape. There were enough Mexicans to crush them, and they were merciless.

In the Alamo were colonels Bowie, Travis, Crockett, and others as daring as they. They were abundantly furnished with weapons and ammunition. When Colonel Travis learned that Santa Anna was close at hand, he sent an appeal to the inhabitants of San Antonio to come to his relief, but not a man responded.

The Mexican army, in brilliant uniforms and with their band playing, surrounded the Alamo, which was summoned to surrender. A defiant reply was returned, and the famous battle opened. The Texan riflemen, from the windows and walls of the building, fired with fatal effect on the Mexicans. When the latter raised ladders against the walls and scrambled up, they were shot or flung back, as fast as they came within reach. Day after day and night after night, while the flag with its lone star floated above the ramparts, the struggle went on until it was apparent that the Mexicans must win by sheer weight of numbers. For more than a week the garrison held out, fighting day and night, until only a dozen were left. These were so exhausted that at last, under a pledge of honorable treatment, they surrendered; but the Mexicans massacred every one.

The defense of the Alamo has never been surpassed in history. You know that at the famous battle at the pass of Thermopylæ, some escaped and carried the news

to their countrymen, but not one of the defenders of the Alamo lived to tell the story, though it is claimed that a young child and a servant were spared. The inscription on the monument afterward erected in Austin to the memory of those that fell on that day in March, 1836, was one of the most appropriate and thrilling tributes ever conceived. The monument bore the words: "THERMOPYLÆ HAD ITS MESSENGER OF DEFEAT: THE ALAMO HAD NONE."

PRESIDENT TAYLOR.

In the following month, Santa Anna, with a much superior army, gave chase to General Sam Houston in command of the patriot forces. Houston continued falling back, as if his first thought was escape, but he was only awaiting his opportunity. The Mexicans, while keeping up the pursuit, became careless, never dreaming of danger. The disorganized pursuers were scattered over several miles, and at San Jacinto, Houston gathered his men and attacked the Mexicans. They were utterly routed, and Santa

Anna himself taken prisoner. He was so frightened that he gladly signed a treaty acknowledging the independence of Texas.

The Mexican government, however, denied the authority of its president to make such a treaty, and refused to be bound by it. A guerrilla warfare followed, but Mexico could not fail to see the impossibility of conquering the province, and she made no organized effort to do so. Texas became an independent republic, of which Sam Houston was chosen the first president, and was elected for a second term.

Upon becoming independent, Texas asked to be admitted into the American Union, but President Van Buren did not favor it, because he saw it would precipitate a war with Mexico. The question was warmly debated in Congress during the years 1843 and 1844. The North was opposed to its admission, because it would add an enormous area of slavery to our territory. Naturally, the South as strongly advocated its admission. After the death of Mr. Upshur, by the explosion on the *Princeton*, John C. Calhoun became secretary of state in March, 1844. He favored the admission of Texas at any cost. President Tyler invited the "Lone Star" republic to come in, and it was evident to all that her admission could not long be delayed. Henry Clay, the Whig candidate, placed himself on the platform of opposition to the admission of Texas. The debate that followed ended the political career of Henry Clay. Van Buren was cast aside for James K. Polk, of Tennessee, while Clay was compelled to meet an element of distrust in the North, which was just sufficient to defeat him. James G. Birney, the candidate of the Liberty party, received enough votes in New York to give Polk a plurality, while the position of Polk on the tariff question secured him Pennsylvania. Thus, by an electoral vote of 170 to 105, Polk became the eleventh president of the United States, while George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania became vice-president.

The convention that nominated Polk was held in Baltimore, from which city, on the 29th of May, 1844, the news of his nomination was sent to Washington by MAGNETIC TELEGRAPH. It was the first public dispatch that ever passed over a wire, and marked an era in the history of civilization. To Professor Henry, of the Smithsonian Institute, probably belongs the credit of that invention, though the popular belief gives it to Professor Samuel F. B. Morse, of Massachusetts. Morse, on the last day of the session in 1843, procured from Congress an appropriation of thirty thousand dollars. This enabled him to put up a line between Baltimore and Washington, which was the first ever erected.

A joint resolution annexing Texas was introduced. It was hotly discussed in the house, but finally passed with a proviso that the new president might act, if he preferred, by treaty. The senate, on the 1st of March, adopted the resolution. This was within three days of the close of Mr. Tyler's term. On the same day Secretary Calhoun hurried off a messenger to Texas, to bring her in under the joint resolution. The president immediately signed the bill, and the "Lone Star" took its place in the constellation of states. Two days later the president signed bills for the admission of Florida and Iowa, but the latter — the twenty-ninth member of the American Union — was not formally admitted until the following year.

CHAPTER XXX.

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION. 1845–1849.

THE WAR WITH MEXICO.

JAMES K. POLK, the eleventh president of the United States, was born in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, in November, 1795. His father settled in Tennessee, while his son was young, and the latter, therefore, became more identified with the state of his adoption than with that of his birth. He was a lawyer by profession, and, acquiring some fame as a local politician, was elected to Congress in 1825, where he served for fourteen years. In 1839, he was chosen governor of Tennessee, and from that position was called to the presidential chair when only forty-nine years old.

Upon reaching this exalted office, he found the financial affairs of the country in a much better condition than did his predecessor. His inaugural address clearly showed his intention to follow a vigorous policy.

The secretary of the navy under Polk was George Bancroft, one of the most honored historians of our country. The foundation of the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis was due to Mr. Bancroft. This model institution, the counterpart of the Military Academy at West Point, was opened October 10, 1845. The Naval Academy was removed to Newport, R. I., in May, 1861, but re-established at Annapolis in September, 1865, where it occupies land formerly known as Fort Severn. The academy is under the immediate care and supervision of the navy department. Each member or delegate to the house of representatives has the power of appointing one cadet every two years. ten are appointed at large by the president, and one by the District of Columbia. Candidates are required to pass an entrance examination under the supervision of the Civil Service Commission and a physical examination by the Academy Board, the cadets being from fourteen to eighteen years of age. The successful candidates become students of the academy, and receive the pay of naval cadets—$500 a year. The graduates are appointed in the order of merit to places in the navy. Such appointments, however, can not be made in excess of vacancies, and graduates not appointed are honorably discharged with one year's pay. The course of instruction is thorough, including mathematics, steam-engineering, physics, mechanics, seamanship, ordnance, history, law, etc.

On the 4th of July, 1845, the Texan legislature ratified the act of annexation to the United States. Well knowing that Mexico would never consent to the peaceful secession of such an enormous portion of her territory, the Texan authorities urged the president of the United States to send an army for their protection. General Zachary Taylor was ordered to advance from his camp in western Louisiana and occupy Texas.

The real dispute between Mexico and the United States was one of boundary. By

the revolution of 1821, Mexico achieved her independence of Spain. In arranging her civil administration, she united the province of Coahuila (that part of Texas lying between the Nueces and Rio Grande rivers) and Texas (which was the remaining part of the Texas of to-day) into one government. Texas, as you have learned, rebelled against Mexico in 1836, and, gaining her independence, claimed that the province of Coahuila went with her. The joint legislatures of Coahuila and Texas adopted such resolution, December 19th, 1836. But Mexico insisted that only Texas had revolted against her authority, and that, as a consequence, Coahuila was rightfully a part of Mexico. In other words, Texas claimed that the Rio Grande was her western boundary, while Mexico insisted that the Nueces was the dividing line. The territory between the two rivers was the apple of discord.

Our government proposed to settle the matter by negotiation, but Mexico was just as scornful then as she is to-day, and she would not consent. General Taylor, therefore, in obedience to orders, established a camp at Corpus Christi, at the mouth of the Nueces, and by the latter part of 1845, had a force of between four and five thousand men under his command. In January he was directed to advance to the Rio Grande, it being well known that the Mexicans were preparing to invade the disputed territory.

On the 8th of March Taylor began the march from Corpus Christi to Point Isabel on the gulf. He established a depot of provisions there, and then, marching to the Rio Grande, halted opposite the Mexican town of Matamoras, and hurriedly threw up a fortification which was afterward named Fort Brown.

General Arista reached Matamoras on the 25th of April, took command of the Mexican forces on the frontier, and the next day notified General Taylor that hostilities had begun. On that day, Captain Thornton with a company of American dragoons was attacked by a large number of Mexicans in the disputed territory, and, after having sixteen men killed and wounded, was compelled to surrender. Thus, as you will see, the first bloodshed of the war occurred east of the Rio Grande.

The Mexicans showed great vigor. Large numbers crossed the river below Fort Brown and so endangered General Taylor's lines of communication that he hastened to Point Isabel to prevent its falling into the hands of the enemy. Major Brown with three hundred men was left to garrison the fort opposite Matamoras.

The Mexicans in Matamoras, seeing the withdrawal of Taylor, were exultant, for they believed his fright had led him to do so. The *Republican Monitor* denounced the Americans as cowards, who were fleeing in the utmost haste to get out of the country, knowing that unless they did so, every one would be destroyed. General Arista was fully satisfied that all he had to do was to bombard Fort Brown and end the war.

But General Taylor, who came to be known as "Old Rough-and-Ready," had no thought of shrinking from his duty. Waiting only long enough to make his supplies at Point Isabel secure, he set out with his provision train and more than two thousand men for Fort Brown. Fully six thousand Mexicans had crossed the Rio Grande, and assumed a strong position at Palo Alto in front of Taylor.

On the 8th of May, the Americans assailed them with great fury, and after five hours' hard fighting routed them with the loss of a hundred men. The Americans had

only four killed and forty wounded. One of the killed, however, was the brave Major Ringgold of the artillery.

Resuming his march the next day, General Taylor, when within three miles of Fort Brown, found himself confronted by another large force of the enemy at Resaca de la Palma. Their artillery was better served than before, and the Americans suffered severely, until the dashing Captain May with his regiment of dragoons charged through the grape-shot, galloped over the Mexican batteries, cut down the gunners, and captured La Vega, the commanding officer. The terrified Mexicans abandoned their guns, flung away their accouterments, and did not stop their flight until on the other side of the Rio Grande. Taylor pushed to Fort Brown, which during his absence had suffered an almost continual bombardment, the commandant, Major Brown, being one of those who was mortally wounded.

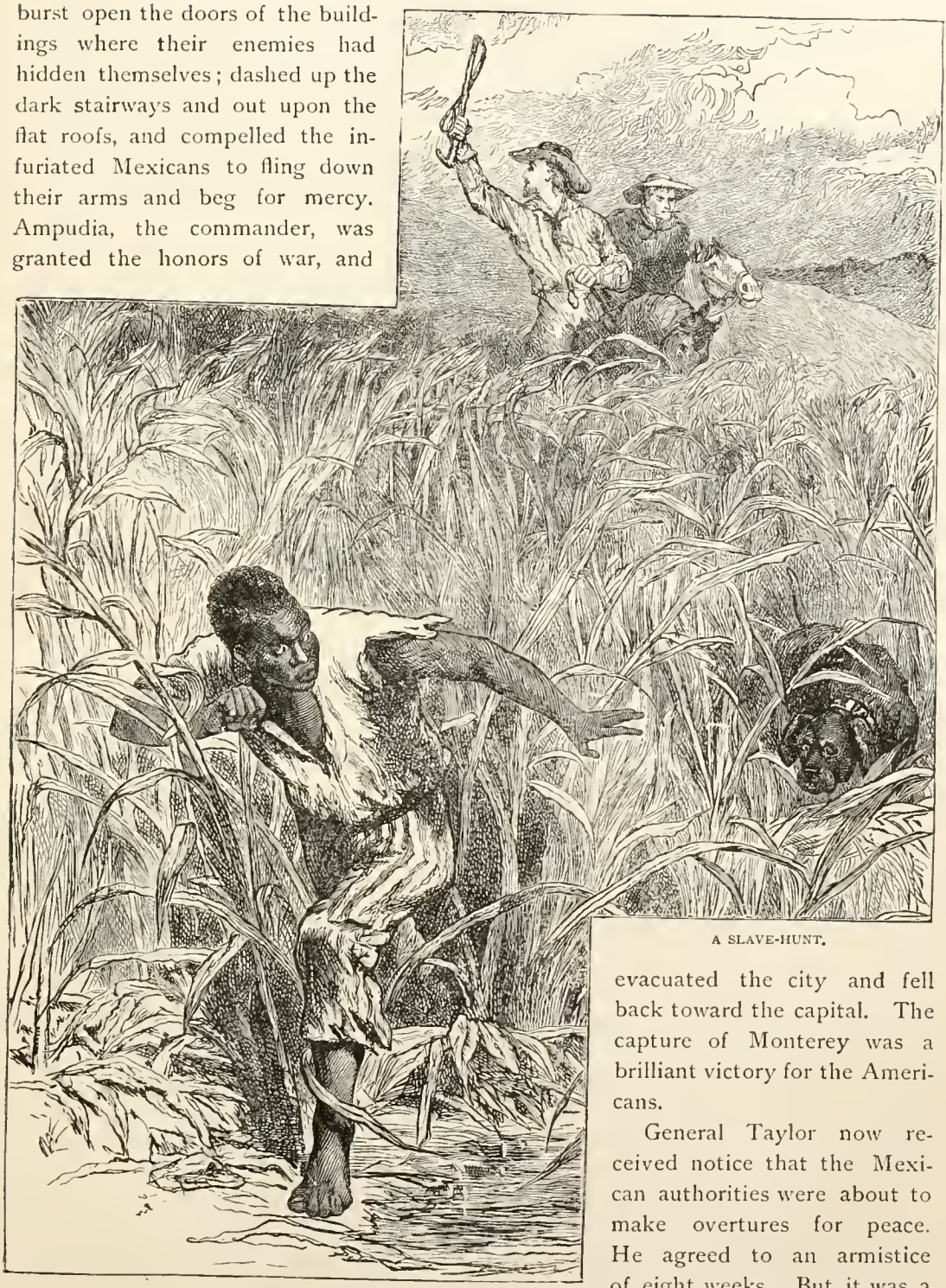
The news of these engagements roused the war spirit of the Union. The president notified Congress that the lawless soldiery of Mexico had shed the blood of American citizens on American soil, and Congress, on the 11th of May, replied by the declaration that war already existed by the act of the Mexican government. Ten million dollars were placed at the disposal of the president, who was authorized to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers. Within a few weeks three hundred thousand clamored for permission to enter the ranks.

Now that war had come in earnest, General Scott planned a grand invasion of Mexico. Our forces were organized into three divisions. The army of the west, under General Kearny, was to cross the Rocky Mountains and conquer the northern Mexican provinces; the army of the center, under General Scott, the commander-in-chief, was to advance from the gulf into the heart of the country, while the army of occupation, under General Taylor, was to seize and hold the districts on the Rio Grande. General Wool was instructed to attend to the work of mustering the troops. He sent nine thousand men to Taylor by the middle of summer, when he established his camp at San Antonio, Texas, and from that point forwarded his recruits.

Meanwhile, General Taylor was not idle. Ten days after the victory of Resaca de la Palma, he crossed over from Fort Brown and captured Matamoras. Then he began his march up the right bank of the river into the interior. The Mexicans fell back to the fortified town of Monterey. Taylor's army was too weak to attack, and he waited near the Rio Grande until the latter part of August. By that time his forces amounted to sixty-six hundred, and he set out for Monterey, which was defended by a garrison of fully ten thousand men.

Monterey was invested on the 19th of September, and two days later General Worth captured the fortified works in the rear of the town. The only remaining defense, a strong building of stone, was carried by storm the following day. At daylight on the 23d, Generals Quitman and Butler assaulted and took the city in front. A fierce cannonade and tempest of musket-balls from the house tops and alleys met the Americans at every step, but nothing could check them. They swept through the town to the Grand Plaza or public square, where they ran up the stars and stripes. Then, turning about, they charged upon the Mexicans who were firing at them from every quarter. They

burst open the doors of the buildings where their enemies had hidden themselves; dashed up the dark stairways and out upon the flat roofs, and compelled the infuriated Mexicans to fling down their arms and beg for mercy. Ampudia, the commander, was granted the honors of war, and



A SLAVE-HUNT.

evacuated the city and fell back toward the capital. The capture of Monterey was a brilliant victory for the Americans.

General Taylor now received notice that the Mexican authorities were about to make overtures for peace. He agreed to an armistice of eight weeks. But it was a trick of the enemy, who used the time thus gained in making every possible preparation.

General Santa Anna, the author of the Alamo massacre, who spent his life in exile, plotting in Mexico, or suffering defeat, was called back from Havana whither he had been exiled, and was given the presidency of the country. During the autumn a Mexican army of twenty thousand was put in the field. The armistice having expired, General Taylor, under orders of his government, once more advanced. General Worth with the advance captured the town of Saltillo, seventy miles south-west from Monterey. This was on the 15th of November, and in the following month General Patterson captured Victoria in the province of Tamaulipas. General Butler, marching from Monterey, joined Patterson at this point, the intention being to advance against Tampico on the Panuco river, but it was learned that Tampico had already surrendered to Captain Conner, commander of an American squadron.

General Wool, meanwhile, entered Mexico from San Antonio with a strong force and took position within supporting distance of Monterey. General Scott now arrived and assumed command of the American forces.

Let us see what was done by the army of the west. General Kearny set out from Fort Leavenworth in June, 1846, to conquer New Mexico, the Mexican provinces of New Mexico and California. It was a long, laborious march to Santa Fé, which was captured and garrisoned on the 18th of August. The whole of New Mexico submitted. General Kearny then set out with four hundred dragoons for the Pacific coast. Three hundred miles out from Santa Fé, he was met by the famous mountaineer, Kit Carson, who brought the news that California had already been conquered. Kearny thereupon sent back three-fourths of his men, and pushed westward with the rest.

For a period of four years, Colonel John C. Fremont had been engaged in exploring the country west of the Rocky Mountains. While in California, he received dispatches telling him of the impending war with Mexico. He urged the hardy pioneers of that country to declare their independence. They did so and rallied about Fremont, who defeated the Mexicans repeatedly, though their numbers were much superior to his command.

Commodore Sloat, with an American fleet, had taken the town of Monterey, eighty miles south of San Francisco, on the coast. Commodore Stockton, commanding the Pacific squadron, shortly afterward captured San Diego. When Fremont learned of what they had done, he raised the flag of the United States instead of that of California, and, joining the naval commanders, marched to Los Angeles, which surrendered without resistance. Before the close of the summer the whole enormous province was subdued. General Kearny reached the coast in November and joined Fremont and Stockton. A few weeks later the Mexicans rose against the invaders, but were routed on the 8th of January, 1847, at San Gabriel. This victory established the authority of the United States. A few hundred brave men had taken a country larger than an ordinary empire.

When General Kearny pushed to the Pacific, he left Colonel Doniphan in command of New Mexico. At the head of seven hundred men, Doniphan marched eight hundred miles through the enemy's country to Saltillo. Striking the Rio Grande on Christmas day, he won the battle of Bracito ; then he crossed the river and took El Paso, and two

months later he was within twenty miles of Chihuahua. He met the Mexicans in large numbers on the banks of the Sacramento creek, and utterly defeated them on the 28th of February. He then marched without resistance into the large city of Chihuahua, and soon after reached the division of General Wool.

General Scott, having taken command in Mexico, ordered the larger part of the army of occupation to join him on the gulf for the purpose of marching against the capital. This left Taylor and Wool in a dangerous position, for Santa Anna was advancing upon them at the head of twenty thousand men. "Old Rough-and-Ready," however, was not dismayed. All the soldiers he could concentrate at Saltillo numbered scarcely six thousand, and after putting garrisons in that place and Monterey, he had but forty-eight hundred left. At the head of these he marched out to meet Santa Anna and his legions. Four miles south of Saltillo, the favorable battle-ground of Buena Vista was chosen, the troops posted, and the attack of the enemy awaited.

On Washington's birthday, the horde of twenty thousand Mexicans swarmed through the gorges and over the hills from the direction of San Luis Potosi. Santa Anna was kind enough to give the Americans a chance to escape massacre by demanding their surrender, and General Taylor was rash enough to refuse.

The battle opened on the 23d by an attempt to outflank the American right, but the Illinois troops defeated it. Then a heavy column was hurled against the center, but was broken and driven back by Captain Washington's artillery. The enemy next fell with great fury upon the left flank. As they did so, an Indiana regiment, acting under a mistaken order, gave way, placing the whole army in imminent danger. But the Mississippians and Kentuckians threw themselves into the breach; the troops of Illinois and Indiana rallied, and once more the enemy was driven back. A final charge was made upon Captain Bragg's battery, but the Mexican lancers were scattered by the volleys of grape-shot, and a charge of the American cavalry (attended though with the loss of many lives), overthrew the foe, who lost fully two thousand men. That night Santa Anna made a hasty retreat.

The American loss in killed, wounded and missing was seven hundred and forty-six men. So hurried was the flight of the Mexicans that they left their dead and wounded behind. Many of the latter died of hunger, thirst and fatigue. As soon as General Taylor learned of their pitiful condition, he sent them provisions and medical attendance.

You will see from the figures that I have given that there was furious fighting at Buena Vista. Colonel Henry Clay, a son of the famous Kentucky statesman, was killed, and, among those who did effective service, was Colonel Jefferson Davis with his Mississippi riflemen. This was the last battle fought by General Taylor. He soon afterward went back to the United States, where the popularity he had gained at Buena Vista ended in making him president.

General Scott began the last campaign of the war on the 9th of March, 1847. He landed with a force of twelve thousand men to the south of Vera Cruz, and within three days completed the investment of the city. The city was summoned to surrender, but refused, and the cannonade was opened on the morning of the 22d. Vera Cruz was de-

fended on the water side by the great castle of San Juan d'Ulloa, built by Spain in the early part of the seventeenth century, at a cost of four million dollars. The fleet of Commodore Conner helped, and for four days the bombardment lasted. Then, when an assault was about to be made, the authorities proposed terms of surrender.

WALKER BEFORE HIS EXECUTION.

These were agreed to, and on the 29th the American flag was raised over Vera Cruz.

The road to the capital of Mexico was now open. General Twiggs, in command of the advance, set out on the 8th of April, General Scott following with the main division. On the 12th, when Twiggs reached the heights and rocky pass of Cerro

Gordo, he found that Santa Anna had taken possession with an army of fifteen thousand men. It looked impossible to carry these heights, but it had to be done, or the whole campaign would come to naught.

Before noon on the 18th, every Mexican position had been carried and the army

SEIZURE OF LOPEZ.

routed. The Americans lost four hundred and thirty-one, and the enemy more than a thousand. The latter left three thousand prisoners behind, forty-three pieces of bronze artillery, five thousand muskets, and an immense supply of accouterments. Santa Anna was so terrified that when he fled he forgot his wooden leg.

The following day the American army entered Jalapa. The castle of Perote surrendered without resistance on the 22d, where large supplies were also secured. The

city of Puebla with its eighty-thousand population next fell into the hands of General Scott without offering resistance. His small army marched in and took possession on the 15th of May. By this time, although the advance of the invaders had been marked by a series of triumphs, they were suffering from the effects of the climate, to which they were unaccustomed, and the arduous campaign they had prosecuted in the mountainous country. Scott, therefore, paused to allow his small army its much needed rest, and to wait for re-enforcements to be sent them.

You will gain a good idea of the character of the corrupt and incompetent Santa Anna, when told that at this time he sent a proposal to Scott, guaranteeing peace without any more fighting on condition that one million dollars should be paid personally to him. The negotiations were carried on through the British consuls. Santa Anna demanded ten thousand dollars at once, and the rest on the establishment of peace. The ten thousand dollars was paid him, and he set out to convince the Mexican congress it was useless to continue resistance longer, but the authorities thought otherwise, and ordered the war to go on.

By the 7th of August, General Scott had received enough re-enforcements to swell his army to eleven thousand. Leaving a small garrison at Puebla, he continued his march toward the capital. He expected to meet with resistance at the passes of the Cordilleras, but none was offered, and the victorious army sweeping through, looked down upon the Valley of Mexico.

It gleamed with beautiful lakes and streams, was studded with cities, while around all clustered the romance, mystery and splendor of the civilization that had vanished in the dim past.

At Ayotla the army was within fifteen miles of the capital. Because of the numerous fortifications in front, the army swung to the south around Lake Chalco and thence west to San Augustine, which took it five miles nearer the city.

But had the Mexican officers been anywhere near the equal of the Americans, the City of Mexico could never have been taken by a force twice as large as that which assaulted it. It could be reached only by causeways leading across marshes and the beds of ancient lakes. Massive gateways defended the ends of these causeways, and to the left of the line of march were the powerful positions of Contreras, San Antonio and Molino del Rey, and in front, closer to the city, were the strong defenses of Churubusco and Chapultepec. The latter was a castle of prodigious strength. All these positions were held by Santa Anna with an army three times as large as that of Scott.

On the 19th of August, the divisions of Generals Pillow and Twiggs were directed to storm the position at Contreras. At dusk, the line of communications between that place and Santa Anna's reserves was cut, and at midnight General Persifer F. Smith led an assaulting column against the camp of the enemy. The attack was made at sunrise, and in less than twenty minutes the six thousand Mexican defenders were sent flying pell-mell out of the fortifications. Soon after, General Worth assailed San Antonio and routed the garrison, and, about the same time, General Pillow attacked one of the heights of Churubusco, where an immense force of the enemy was gathered. The fighting was desperate, but the Mexicans were routed. General Twiggs with his

division stormed and held another height of Churubusco, while generals Shields and Pierce repulsed Santa Anna, who was advancing to re-enforce his garrisons. Thus in a brief space of time on the same day, the Americans gained five distinct victories.

The next morning Santa Anna sent out a proposal to negotiate. Their terms were such as a conqueror would have offered the vanquished, and of course were rejected. The proposal, however, was not in earnest, but a device to gain time. Having rested his men until the 7th of September, General Scott renewed hostilities. General Worth was ordered the next morning to take Molino del Rey and Casa de Mata, the western defenses of Chapultepec. Fourteen thousand Mexicans defended these positions, but the Americans, after losing one-fourth of their number, captured them. Chapultepec was carried by storm on the 13th, and, when the sun went down, the army of the Union was within the suburbs of the City of Mexico.

That night Santa Anna turned loose two thousand convicts to fire on the American soldiers, and with the officers of the city stole out in the darkness. At daylight, a deputation came forth to treat with General Scott, but the old hero was weary of double-dealing and refused to have any thing to do with them. The order to advance was given, and the resistless veterans swept through the lovely streets of the famous city. By seven o'clock in the morning the flag of the Union floated above the halls of the Montezumas. Safely beyond the blows of the American army, Santa Anna turned to attack the hospitals at Puebla, where there were nearly two thousand invalids under charge of Colonel Childs. They kept up a brave resistance for several days, until General Lane arrived, and again the cowardly Mexicans were scattered. Shorn of all authority, Santa Anna became a fugitive, while the military power of Mexico was utterly broken. All that remained was to arrange the terms of peace.

American ambassadors in the winter of 1847–48, met the Mexican congress in session at Guadalupe Hidalgo, and on the 2d of February a treaty of peace was concluded between Mexico and the United States.

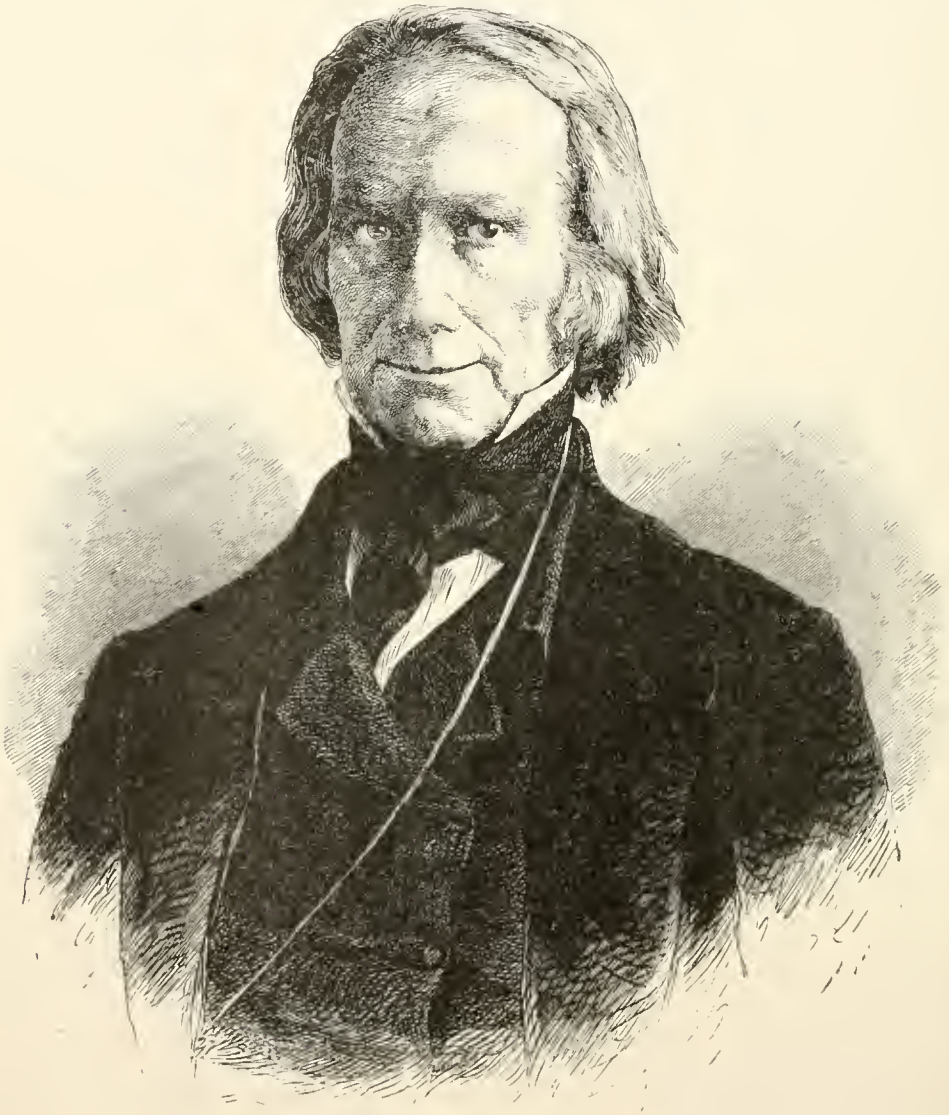
With some modifications by the American senate, the treaty was adopted by that body on the 10th of March and ratified by the Mexican congress at Queretaro on the 30th of May. It was proclaimed by President Polk on the 4th of July, and the long and bitter quarrel between the two nations was over.

By this treaty we gained not only Texas, but New Mexico, California and Arizona, so that Mexico was compelled to give up a large part of her territory in order to procure peace with her powerful neighbor on the north of the Rio Grande.

The United States agreed to pay Mexico fifteen million dollars and to assume all debts due from that government to American citizens to the extent of three million, five hundred thousand dollars. This was in payment for our gain of territory and privileges.

Now, in reading the history of the Mexican war, you have noticed that the soldiers of that country were no match at all for those we sent thither. They were inferior in every respect, and the American troops had no difficulty in routing two or three times their own number of them. You will be amused, therefore, when I tell you that, ever since 1848, the Mexicans have celebrated the defeats of which I have given you an

account, and really look upon them as great victories for themselves. They say that if our government had not paid the indemnity of fifteen million dollars, General Scott and his army never would have been allowed to leave the City of Mexico! In other words, since we were rash enough to begin the war, we escaped utter overthrow only by



HENRY CLAY.

paying for the forbearance of our conquerors, the Mexicans. Such being the case, you can understand why, in the summer and fall of 1886, when we had our little flurry with Mexico over the Cutting case, that country was so defiant.

For more than twenty years, Great Britain and the United States had jointly occupied Oregon territory, the agreement being such that it could be ended by either on

a year's notice. Whether such notice should or should not be given was the cause of many bitter debates in Congress, during the winter of 1845–46. The United States claimed that the boundary line should be 54 degrees 40 minutes, and the phrase, "Fifty-four forty or fight," was familiar to every body. Both countries made preparations for war, but it is fortunate that two such powers as England and the United States generally

PRESIDENT FILLMORE.

have clear-headed men at the helm of government. When both sides had become cool, there was no trouble in locating the boundary line. It was agreed that it should continue along the 49th parallel of north latitude to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from Vancouver's Island, and thence southerly through that channel and Fuca Strait to the Pacific Ocean; and that the navigation of the whole of the channel and the strait south of the 49th parallel should remain open to both; and that the

navigation of the great northern branch of the Columbia should be free to all British subjects. The land thus conceded to England became British Columbia. In 1848, a territorial government was organized for Oregon, and in 1853 the territory was divided, the northern portion becoming Washington Territory.

In the month of February, 1848, James W. Marshall, a native of New Jersey, with a companion named Weimer, was erecting a saw-mill at Coloma, California, for Colonel Sutter, a Swiss, the commandant of Fort Sutter. The mill was located at the head of a bar where the river curved like a horseshoe. The mill-race was cut through the bar, but, when the mill was started, the race was found to be too shallow. Marshall and Weimer went to a point about fifty yards below the mill to deepen the race. Suddenly Marshall asked:

"What is that shining at the toe of your boot?"

Weimer stooped over and picked up a piece of glittering metal.

"It must be brass," he said, after examining it.

"But how could it get *there?* We haven't used a piece of brass in the whole mill," said Marshall.

This was a question that could not be answered. It might be gold, they thought. The wife of Weimer was busy with her washing that day, and had made lye by leaching wood-ashes. To test the metal, she boiled it several hours with the lye. It proved to be gold, in shape like a long irregular pumpkin-seed, and weighed eight and three-quarters pennyweights. Its value was about $7.

Marshall and Weimer returned to the mill-race, and with wooden bowls washed out several ounces of gold. Marshall then took charge of all that had been secured, mounted his horse and galloped to Monterey, the nearest point where a proper test could be made. It was past midnight, and Colonel Sutter was dozing in his bed, when he was startled by the sound of a horse's hoofs outside the fort. In a moment some one banged at the gate; then the clank of spurs was heard on the brick floors. An instant later there was a knock at Colonel Sutter's door. The colonel hastily loosed the fastenings, when Marshall, white with excitement, rushed in, shouting:

"IT'S GOLD! IT'S GOLD!"

In this manner was discovered the presence of gold in California. How strange that while hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of the precious metal lay in the soil, while the beds of scores of streams sparkled with the yellow grains, while unnumbered rocks gleamed with the auriferous deposits—yet the fact seemed never to have been suspected until that day in February, 1848, when Marshall caught the yellow sparkle at the toe of Weimer's boot, while the two were digging at the mill-race in Coloma.

You can gain no idea of the excitement that followed. The discoverers tried to keep the momentous matter a secret, but it was impossible. Marshall employed a number of Indians to help him get out the gold. He bought Colonel Sutter's place, and became rich, but he was a poor business man, and died a short time ago in poverty. Multitudes swarmed from every part of the world to Sutter's Fort. They literally overran the poor Swiss, who was without the means of keeping off the intruders. He, too, died a poor man.

FALL OF THE ALAMO.

No one can tell the exact yield of the gold mines of California, but it was far beyond any sum you can understand. The quantity found in 1850 was not quite fifty million dollars, and the annual yield rapidly increased. The amount received by our mint up to June 30th, 1861, was more than five hundred million dollars.

In April, 1846, Congress passed an act organizing the Smithsonian Institute. Twenty-two years before, James Smithson, an eminent English chemist and philanthropist, died in Genoa, and left a large sum of money on certain conditions to the United States. In 1838, this sum, amounting to more than half a million dollars, was secured by an agent of our government and deposited in the mint. The funds were to be used for the establishment at Washington of an institution for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men. A plan of organization was prepared by John Quincy Adams and adopted by Congress.

The institution was named the Smithsonian Institute, in honor of the founder, and was under the immediate control of a board of regents composed of the president, vice-president, judges of the supreme court and other principal officers of the government. It was provided that the entire Smithsonian fund, amounting with accrued interest to $625,000, should be loaned forever to the United States at six per cent.; that out of the proceeds, together with congressional appropriations and private gifts, buildings should be erected suitable to contain a museum of natural history, a cabinet of minerals, a chemical laboratory, a gallery of art, and a library. Professor Joseph Henry, of Princeton College, was chosen secretary, and the plan of organization was soon carried out. The Smithsonian Institute is one of the most beneficent organizations in the history of mankind.

Two ex-presidents died during the administration of Polk. The first was Andrew Jackson, who expired June 8, 1845, at his home known as the Hermitage, in Tennessee. He had been suffering for months from dropsy and disease of the lungs. On the Friday before his death, he gave directions about his funeral and dictated a letter, his last, to the president, urging him to act promptly in the affairs of Texas and Oregon. On the morning of his death, an extremely hot day, he bade farewell to his family, friends and servants, to whom he spoke with calmness and strength on the subject of religion. "I hope to meet you all, both white and black, in heaven," said he, repeating the words a number of times during the afternoon, as he felt his last moment approaching. When he heard the servants on the piazza weeping, he said, "What is the matter, my dear children? Have I alarmed you? O do not cry! Be good children and we will meet in heaven." At six o'clock he died without a struggle or a pang. His funeral took place on the following Tuesday, and was attended by fully 3,000 people. His remains lie at the Hermitage, eleven miles from Nashville. A massive monument of Tennessee granite marks his grave.

The death of John Quincy Adams, the sixth president, was attended by remarkable circumstances. He was a member of Congress, and on the 21st of February, 1848, he entered the capitol with his usual briskness and took his seat. While petitions were being presented there came a sudden cry of, "Mr. Adams!" and a number of excited members rushed toward his seat. He was in the act of rising with several petitions in

his hand, when he was stricken with apoplexy. He caught at his desk, and was reeling to the floor, when a member across the aisle sprang forward and caught him in his arms. He was carried into the rotunda, and then into the speaker's room. He tried to speak, but his voice was thick and indistinct, though Mr. Ashmun, while placing him on the sofa, caught the words, "This is the last of earth: I am content." He became insensible at once, and lingered, faintly breathing, till ten o'clock on the morning of the 23d, when he died. His body was drawn by six white horses, on the car that had served for Harrison's funeral, and, after lying in state in Faneuil Hall, Boston, was

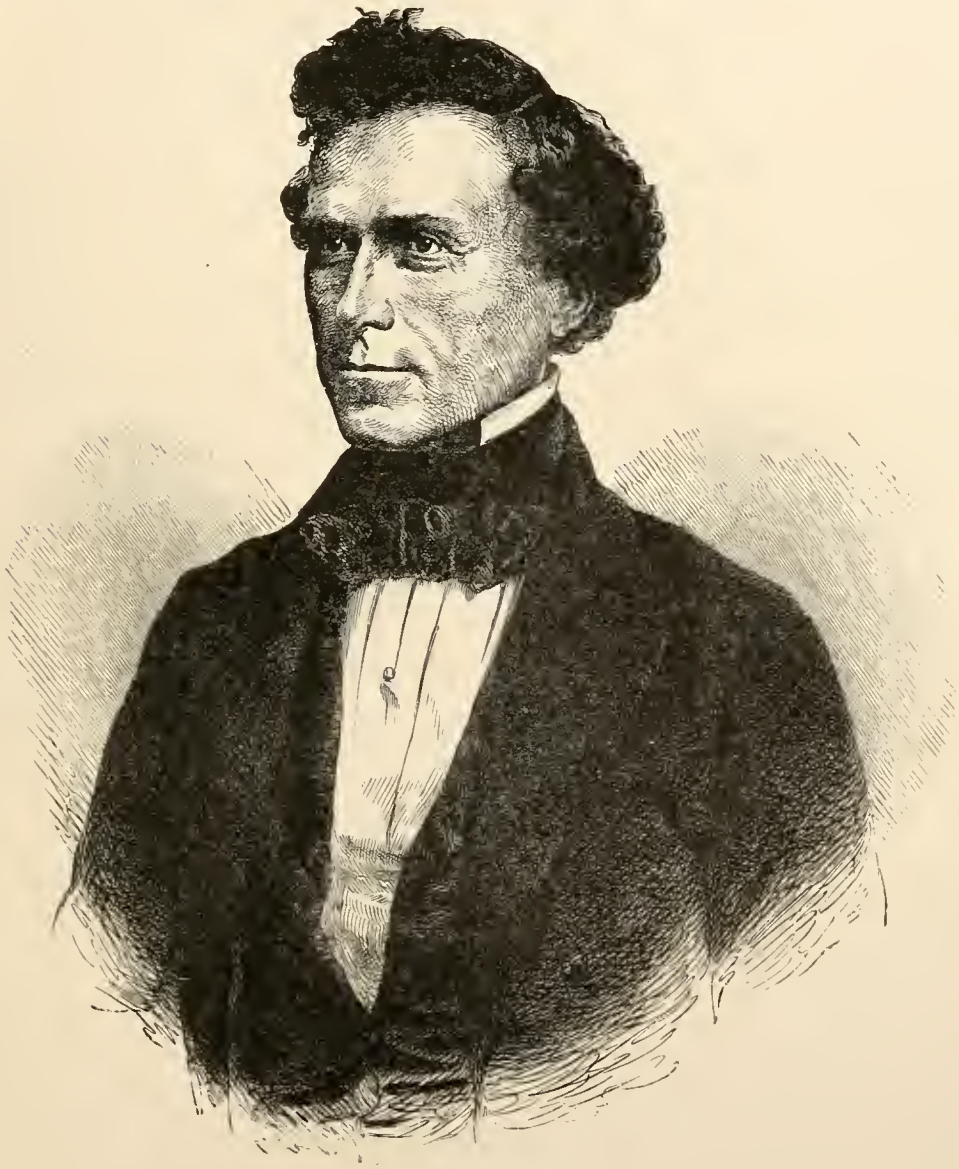
KANE AND HIS COMPANIONS IN THEIR VESSEL.

buried under the Unitarian Church at Quincy, Massachusetts, where his father, John Adams, was buried.

During the last year of Polk's administration, Wisconsin was admitted as the thirtieth member of the Union. It was the last of the five great states formed from the North-western Territory. It came in with an area of nearly fifty-four thousand square miles, and a population of a quarter of a million.

Three well-known presidential candidates were presented to the people in the fall of 1848. General Lewis Cass, of Michigan, was nominated by the democrats, and General Zachary Taylor by the whigs. Ex-president Martin Van Buren was put forward as the

candidate of the new free-soil party, the rise of which was due to a dispute about the territory gained by the Mexican war. In 1846, David Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, presented a bill in Congress to prohibit slavery in all the territory which might be secured by treaty with Mexico. The bill, known as the Wilmot Proviso, was defeated,



PRESIDENT PIERCE.

but the advocates of the measure formed themselves into a party, and in June, 1848, nominated Van Buren for the presidency.

The real struggle, however, lay between Cass and Taylor. The latter was the more popular because of his brilliant victories in Mexico, and he was elected by a large majority. Millard Fillmore, of New York, was chosen vice-president.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ADMINISTRATION OF TAYLOR AND FILLMORE. 1849–1853.

YOU have already learned something about General Zachary Taylor, the twelfth president of the United States. He was born in Virginia in 1784, but his parents removed to Kentucky when he was an infant. He received only a meager school education, but was a fine soldier. During the war of 1812, he gained much fame, especially in defending Fort Harrison against the Indians. He bore a conspicuous part in the Seminole war, but acquired his greatest distinction in the war with Mexico.

President Taylor's first annual message was an able paper. He directed the attention of Congress to a number of important measures, among which were: a system of cheap and universal postage; the establishment of a bureau of agriculture; needed appropriations for the improvements of harbors and rivers; the erection of a national asylum for disabled and destitute seamen; a permanent tariff with specific duties on imports and discrimination in favor of American manufactures; the establishment of communication between the Mississippi and the Pacific coast; a settlement of the land difficulties in California; a provision for the retirement of supernumerary officers of the army and navy, and a board of commissioners to adjust the claims of private citizens against the government.

The party of the president being in a minority in Congress, only two of the measures he recommended (the asylum for sailors and the settlement of land claims in California) were carried into effect.

On the 13th of February, 1850, the constitution of California, together with her petition to be admitted into the Union, was sent by the president to Congress. The presentation of the papers opened one of the fiercest disputes that ever took place in that body. You will recall that by the passage of the Missouri Compromise it was agreed that slavery should be allowed in all parts of the Union south of 36° 30′ north latitude. Now, as a large part of the newly-acquired territory lay south of that parallel, it was clear that Congress could not exclude slavery; it must be decided by the people themselves. But in California the people had already settled the question by adopting as a part of their constitution a prohibition of slavery.

Other causes added to the excitement. Texas claimed New Mexico as a part of her territory. This claim was disputed by the people of Santa Fé, who wanted a separate government. The Southerners complained bitterly because fugitive slaves, escaping from their masters, were helped by the North, while the opponents of slavery demanded the abolition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia. Colonel Monroe, the American commandant in New Mexico, in obedience to private instructions from Washington, called a convention of the people, who formed a state government and

asked to be admitted into the Union. The Texans made preparations to seize the territory, when the quarrel took a new turn. The South supported the claims of Texas, because they promised an increase of slave area; for the same reason the North opposed them.

It would be hard for you to gain an idea of the bitter feeling in Congress. General Foote, of Mississippi, leveled a pistol at Colonel Benton, of Missouri, and doubtless would have shot him dead had he not been prevented. The Southern states threatened to withdraw from the Union, and beyond all doubt we stood on the brink of a dreadful civil war.

Once again, and for the last time, Henry Clay stepped forward as the great peacemaker. On the 25th of January, 1850, he submitted to the senate a series of resolutions by which he proposed to admit California as a state; to establish territorial governments over all the other newly acquired countries, without reference to slavery; to abolish all traffic in slaves in the District of Columbia, but to declare it inexpedient to abolish slavery there without the consent of the citizens and also of the Marylanders, and to assume the debt of Texas. Daniel Webster, with all the power of his masterly reasoning and eloquence, supported the measure. John C. Calhoun was the leader on the Southern side, but he was so ill and feeble that Senator Mason read his argument against the proposed compromise. This was on the 4th of March, and on the last day of the same month Calhoun died. The most formidable obstacle was thus removed from the path of Clay and Webster.

By the "Omnibus Bill," as it is termed, California was admitted into the Union as a state, with the constitution excluding slavery, and with boundaries extending (as they do to-day) from Oregon to Mexico; the Great Basin of the Rocky Mountains was organized, without mention of slavery, into the territory of Utah; New Mexico, with a recognition of her right to the parts claimed by Texas, was also made into a territory, with liberty to do as she pleased about slavery; ten million dollars were to be given to Texas from the federal treasury, in payment for this loss of possessions which she believed to be her own—Texas being required at the same time to pay certain debts for which the national government had previously been bound; the slave trade, but not slavery itself, was abolished in the District of Columbia, and it was provided that all fugitive slaves in the free states should be liable to arrest and return to slavery.

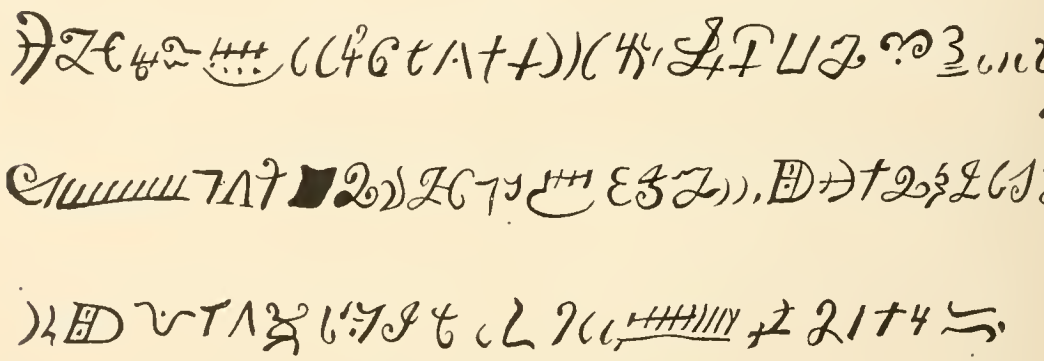
The angry debates broke out again in Congress, and it looked as if they would never end except by the actual clash of arms. On the 9th of July, Daniel Webster appeared in the senate, and by a gesture stopped the member who was speaking. It was evident from the manner of Webster that he was about to communicate momentous news. A death-like stillness fell over the whole assembly, and he himself stood silent a few seconds before he could command his emotions sufficiently to speak. At last, in a slow, broken voice, he said, "I have a sorrowful message to deliver to the senate. A great misfortune threatens the nation. The president of the United States, General Taylor, is dying, and probably may not survive the day."

President Taylor had attended the Fourth of July ceremonial in Washington, when the dust from Kosciusko's tomb was deposited in the Washington monument, and he

stood for several hours exposed to the heat of the day, which he declared was worse than he had ever experienced in Florida or Mexico. Going home, he drank freely of cold water and iced milk, despite the protest of his servant. The imprudence resulted in his death on the 9th of July. His remains were followed by an imposing procession to the Congressional Cemetery. Since then the ashes have been removed three times, and now repose at Frankfort, Ky.

A little more than a year before this—June 15, 1849, and three months after the end of his term—Ex-president Polk died. He was ill on his way home from Washington, and, having partly recovered, a relapse proved fatal. On his death-bed, the rite of baptism was administered to him by a Methodist clergyman. He was buried at the old family homestead at Nashville, Tenn., a monument twelve feet square by twelve feet in height marking his last resting place.

On the 10th of July, Vice-president Millard Fillmore was sworn in as president. He was born in New York at the opening of the present century. He had acquired



CHARACTERS FROM THE "GOLDEN PLATES."

some distinction as a lawyer, but in ability was much the inferior of scores of leaders in his party around him.

One of the clauses of the "Omnibus Bill" provided for the return of slaves who had fled into the free states. This goaded thousands in the north to madness. For many years they had assisted fugitive slaves, giving them shelter, clothing, food and concealment. The means by which so many were assisted to Canada was known as the "Underground Railroad." To aid in the return of these miserable beings to slavery was more than most people could do.

The powerful support given the compromise measures by Webster marked a crisis in his life. He was denounced by many of his constituents and friends. The one consuming ambition of his life was to become president of the United States. Transcendent as were his abilities, he had made this impossible.

The island of Cuba has been looked upon with longing eyes by a great many people in this country. A great many adventurers have gone thither to help the people in their struggle to gain their independence of Spain, and also in the hope of securing possession of the valuable island themselves. It was believed that a large majority of the people were anxious to be annexed to the United States. In order to help such a movement,

MURDER OF JOSEPH AND HYRUM SMITH. (*See page 379.*)

Pen drawing by W. L. Jumel.

General Lopez organized an expedition in the South, and on the 19th of May, 1850, he landed at Cardenas, a port of Cuba. Nobody rallied to his support, however, and had he not fled to Florida he would have been executed.

Lopez was reckless enough to renew the attempt the next year, with a band of nearly five hundred men. The Spanish soldiers attacked and overwhelmed them. Lopez, while asleep in a cabin in the mountains, was captured, and with the ringleaders was taken to Havana and shot.

By the terms of former treaties with England, she owned the coast fisheries of Newfoundland, but, outside of a line drawn three miles from the shore, the American fishermen had the same rights. In 1852, a serious dispute arose whether this three-mile line should follow the windings of the shore, or whether it should be stretched from one headland to another. If the latter view, which was held by Great Britain, was correct, our fishermen would be shut out from all the bays and inlets. We maintained the former, and the quarrel became so warm that each nation sent armed vessels to the waters. In 1854, the wrangle was settled, and the Americans were given the right to fish in any of the bays of the British possessions.

A pleasant excitement was caused in the summer of 1852, by the arrival of the famous Hungarian patriot, Louis Kossuth. The liberties of his native land had been crushed by Austria and Russia, and he came to America to beg our aid. You know that the policy of our government would not allow us to interfere with the quarrels on the other side of the Atlantic, but in other respects the mission of the great man was successful. He was one of the most eloquent orators that ever lived, and he was received everywhere with the utmost cordiality.

In another place I shall have something to tell you about the many attempts to reach the North Pole. Much interest was felt in Arctic exploration during the administration of Taylor and Fillmore. Great Britain sent out Sir John Franklin in 1845 in quest of the open polar sea, by which he believed he could reach the Pacific. Year after year went by and Franklin did not return, nor was any news heard from him. All that was known was that he had passed the country of the Esquimaux. Expeditions were sent in search of him, but they came back without any tidings of his fate. Lady Franklin insisted that her husband and most of his crew were still alive, and could be rescued. To her exertions was due the sending of more than one party of search to the extreme North. Henry Grinnell, a wealthy merchant of New York, fitted out, under the command of Lieutenant De Haven, an expedition consisting of two small vessels, which left New York in May, 1850. At the southern entrance to Wellington Channel, the graves of three of Franklin's men, made in April, 1846, were found, but no trace of the commander himself. This expedition came back to the United States in October, 1851, and the news it brought caused a profound sensation throughout Europe and America.

There was a wide-spread belief that Sir John Franklin and many of his brave men were alive. Our government now came to the help of Grinnell and assisted him in sending another expedition, which sailed on the 31st of May, 1853. It was under the command of Dr. Elisha Kent Kane, the surgeon and naturalist of the former expedition.

The ships were frozen fast on the coast of Greenland, where they passed the first winter. During the following summer the shores of that desolate region were explored to a greater extent than ever before, but the ships could neither advance nor withdraw. The winter of 1854–55 was one of fearful suffering, many of the explorers dying of hunger and disease. The vessels not returning, an expedition was sent in search of Kane.

Meanwhile, Kane, finding his vessels could not be extricated, set out with his men in open boats, and after a voyage of thirteen hundred miles reached a Danish settlement in Greenland, where they were found by the relief expedition. They arrived in New York, October 11, 1855, bringing no tidings of Sir John Franklin, but adding greatly to our store of knowledge of those inhospitable regions.

During the early part of Lieutenant De Haven's absence, Captain McClure, who had been dispatched by England to search for Franklin, entered the Arctic Ocean from the Pacific, through Behring's Strait, and pushing eastward, discovered the long-sought north-west passage round the Arctic coast of America. The country, however, is so blocked with ice and is so desolate that the route can never be of any practical use.

The democratic convention for the nomination of a candidate for the presidency met in Baltimore on the 1st of June, 1852. The chief candidates were James Buchanan of Pennsylvania, Lewis Cass of Michigan, William L. Marcy of New York and Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois. At the beginning, Buchanan led, but at the forty-ninth ballot General Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire received all the votes but six. As compared with the others, it may be said he was unknown. When his nomination was telegraphed throughout the country, there were tens of thousands that had never heard of him. Those who knew him recalled that his main distinction was gained as a commander of the New Hampshire volunteers during the Mexican war. William R. King of Alabama was the nominee for the vice-presidency.

The whig convention met in the same city on the 16th of June. Daniel Webster, General Scott and President Fillmore were put in nomination, and it was not until the fifty-ninth ballot that General Scott received a majority. William A. Graham of North Carolina, a member of the president's cabinet, was nominated for the vice-presidency.

A third convention, called by the men that were dissatisfied with the various compromise measures adopted by Congress, and who believed that slavery was a great question before the country, met at Pittsburg on the 11th of August. John Parker Hale of New Hampshire was nominated for president, and George W. Julian of Indiana for vice-president.

A great many believed that General Scott's fame as a military leader would carry him successfully through the canvass, but he was overwhelmingly defeated, receiving only forty-two electoral votes, those of Vermont, Massachusetts, Kentucky and Tennessee, while Pierce was given the vote of all the other states, amounting to two hundred and fifty-four.

CHAPTER XXXII.

ADMINISTRATION OF PIERCE. 1853-1857.

FRANKLIN PIERCE, when he became president of the United States, was forty-eight years old. Born in New Hampshire, he had been a member of the state legislature and afterward of both branches of Congress. He was a graduate of Bowdoin College, a lawyer and politician, and a brigadier-general under Scott during the Mexican war. He was an ardent democrat of the Jackson school, and possessed considerable ability.

President Pierce was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1853, the occasion being marked by a great deal of military display. A notable incident was the presence of the aged George Washington Parke Custis, the adopted son of George Washington. He had been present at the inauguration of every president of the United States since the formation of the federal government in 1789.

Mr. King was in such failing health, that at the time of his nomination for the vice-presidency he was in Cuba. It was there he took the oath of office, but he grew more feeble, and, returning to his native state, died April 18, 1853.

Several overland expeditions were sent across the continent with a view of learning the best route for a Pacific railway. Late in the autumn of 1853, Colonel Fremont fitted out an expedition at his own expense to explore the Cochatope Pass, with a view of learning whether the snow would permit railway traveling during the winter months. The men were subjected to extreme suffering. For forty-five days they were compelled to eat mules, and the hardiest mountaineers succumbed to the fearful cold. The explorers were rescued by a relief party in February, 1854.

In the January preceding, Senator Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois, chairman of the senate committee on territories, introduced a bill intended to deal with that enormous unorganized region lying between Missouri, Iowa and Minnesota on the one hand, and the Pacific territories on the other, embracing one-fourth of all the public lands of the United States. Mr. Douglas proposed to erect this region into two territories, the southern portion situated below the fortieth parallel of north latitude to be called Kansas, and the northern portion to be known as Nebraska.

The northern representatives opposed the measure because it violated the compromise agreements of 1821 and 1850, by permitting the establishment of slavery in both the proposed territories, although almost the entire area of Nebraska lay above the parallel named in the Missouri Compromise. Numerous meetings were held in the North and vehement protests made against the passage of the bill. Nevertheless it passed the senate on the 7th of March by a vote of 37 to 14. It was bitterly fought in the house, but finally went through by a vote of 113 to 100. It received several amend-

ments to which the senate agreed, and the president signed it on the 31st of May. Thus the Missouri Compromise was repealed, and the inhabitants of the territories named were left free to do as they chose about establishing slavery.

While the important act was pending in Congress, the Homestead bill became law. This was designed to encourage emigration to the territories named. It provided that any free white male citizen, or any one who prior to the passage of the act had declared

BRIGHAM YOUNG.
(*His last photograph.*)

his intention of becoming a citizen, might select a hundred and sixty acres out of the public domain, and on proof being given that he had occupied and cultivated it for five years, should receive a title to it without payment. Before final adoption, the bill was changed so as to fix a graduated price for all public lands that might be sold.

The enforcement of the Fugitive Slave act deepened the hostility between the North and South. I have told you about the Underground Railroad, as it was called, by which the abolitionists helped escaping slaves to Canada, where they were safe

against recapture. Only a few days after the passing of the Kansas-Nebraska bill, the arrest in Boston of Anthony Burns, a fugitive slave, caused a riot. A deputy-marshal was shot dead. Federal troops were summoned from Rhode Island to aid the civil officers, and it was necessary for a military force to protect the court until the prisoner should be tried. The decision went against him and he was conveyed back to Virginia on board a United States revenue cutter sent by President Pierce for that purpose. The military cleared the streets, the banks and other places of business on the line of march were closed, and flags draped in mourning were in many places hung at half-mast.

Congress quietly made treaties with the Indian tribes in the West, by which they gave up their claims to Kansas and Nebraska; but when the first New England colony reached the former territory, not all the titles of the Indians had been extinguished. The settlers, therefore, planted themselves at Lawrence, the first desirable point free from Indian claims. A. H. Reeder of Pennsylvania was appointed governor of the territory, and arrived there in the month of October.

And now Kansas became the battle-ground between the friends and the enemies of slavery. Northern societies sent emigrants to the territory, and furnished many of them with Bibles and rifles; bands crossed over from Missouri and terrorized the elections; armed men fought each other with the fury of tigers; and revolting outrages were perpetrated on both sides, though the friends of slavery were generally the aggressors.

A territorial legislature was formed in March, 1855, at which time civil war was raging. During the election for the legislative assembly in that month, hundreds of Missourians entered Kansas, voted for pro-slavery candidates and then re-crossed the Missouri. In some cases candidates were given majorities in excess of the whole number entitled to vote. Finding it impossible to stop the anarchy, Governor Reeder, in April, went to Washington to take counsel with the federal government. While there he was nominated by the free-state men as a delegate to Congress. The pro-slavery party, aided by the Missourians, elected General Whitfield to the same office.

Two rival delegates now knocked at the door of Congress, and since both could not be admitted, that body had to decide which one should be allowed to come in. Not only that, but Kansas adopted two state constitutions. The pro-slavery legislature assembled at Lecompton in March and adopted a constitution permitting slavery. The free-soilers met in the town of Lawrence on the 15th of August, and elected delegates which assembled at Topeka on the 23d of October. The constitution which they adopted became known as the Topeka Constitution. Being submitted to the people, they proceeded on the 17th of January, 1856, to hold elections under it.

A week later, President Pierce sent a special message to Congress, in which he pronounced the formation of a free-state government in Kansas as an act of rebellion, while that of the previous March he declared to be valid. Governor Reeder having been superseded, Wilson Shannon was appointed in his place.

The scenes of violence increased in Kansas, and the situation became so critical, that Congress took an unusual step. On the 19th of March a committee of three was appointed to go to the disturbed districts, investigate and report. This report was made

on the 1st of July, and was to the effect that neither election was regular, but that the various elections held by the people in the territory preliminary to the formation of the state government had been as nearly legal as the disturbed condition would allow, and that the constitution passed by the convention—that is the pro-slavery one—embodied the will of a majority of the people. Only two of the committee agreed to the report, and the course taken by Congress, therefore, did no good.

The civil war continued. A free-soil government with General Lane at the head, and with a small and regularly organized army, was established at Lawrence. This town was sacked and almost destroyed May 20th, 1856. On the 4th of July, the free-state legislature at Topeka was broken up by companies of artillery and dragoons of the federal army, by order of the national government.

Governor Shannon failing to bring the free-state party to terms, gave way to John W. Geary, of Pennsylvania. When he reached Kansas, he called on both parties to disarm, but they scoffed at him. After a time, finding President Pierce would not support him in his vigorous measures, Governor Geary resigned and Robert J. Walker, of Mississippi, succeeded him. He showed a disposition to do what he believed was right, and was turned out to make room for J. W. Denver. He resigned in turn and was succeeded by Samuel Medary. The struggle that followed did not last long. Seeing the impossibility of forcing a pro-slavery constitution on Kansas, the task was given up. A constitution prohibiting slavery was ratified in 1859, and Charles Robinson was chosen governor.

Nebraska, lying to the north, was free from the outrages which drenched the plains of Kansas with blood. But Congress more than once was disgraced by personal collisions, which were the result of the fight between slavery and freedom in the distant territory. On the 19th and 20th of May, 1855, Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts, delivered a speech which, when published, he called "The Crime Against Kansas." He was answered by Senators Cass, Douglas, Mason, and by Butler, of South Carolina, who assailed Sumner with such violence that he retaliated in equally intemperate language.

Two days later, after the adjournment of the senate, Sumner sat at his desk writing. Preston S. Brooks, a representative from South Carolina, accompanied by Mr. L. M. Keitt, another member from that state, approached the desk. Addressing Mr. Sumner, the former said: "I have read your speech twice over carefully; it is a libel upon South Carolina, and upon Mr. Butler, who is a relative of mine." Brooks then quickly raised a heavy stick with which he struck Sumner violent and rapid blows over the head until he fell insensible and bleeding to the floor. His injuries were of such a dangerous character that he was obliged to go abroad for medical treatment, and it was not until the end of four years that he was able to resume his seat, which had remained empty all that time.

Brooks was lionized for what he had done. The necessary two-thirds vote could not be secured to expel him (ayes, 121; nays, 95), but he resigned, and Keitt, being censured, did the same. They were treated with the greatest honor in South Carolina, where Brooks received numerous testimonials. He was welcomed at a large public meeting in Columbia, when the mayor, as the representative of authority, gave him a cane and other

tokens of approval. He and Keitt were at once re-elected to Congress by acclamation, and no one could have been treated with greater distinction. On the 27th of January, 1857, about eight months after the assault, Brooks died suddenly in great agony, from an attack of croup. Mr. Sumner died in March, 1874.

A disagreement with Spain occurred in 1854. On the 28th of February, the American steamship *Black Warrior* was seized in Havana harbor, and the vessel and cargo declared confiscated to the Spanish government. It was instantly proposed in the house of representatives to suspend the neutrality laws between Spain and the United States. Matters, however, were not pushed to such an extremity. The president sent a special messenger to Madrid with instructions to our minister to demand indemnity for the seizure of the ship. The quarrel was thus adjusted without trouble, but the affair gave a pretext for other fillibustering attempts against Cuba. Several expeditions were prepared, but the president on the 1st of June issued a proclamation which effectually stopped them. There was such a general wish, however, to add the island to our possessions, that a conference on foreign soil was arranged to discuss the matter. In August, 1854, President Pierce directed Mr. Buchanan, the American minister at London; Mr. Mason, the minister at Paris, and Mr. Soule, envoy at Madrid, to meet at some convenient place to consider the question. These officials met at Ostend on the 9th of October, adjourned three days later to Aix-la-Chapelle, and from that place addressed a letter to their government on the 18th of the month, recommending that Cuba be purchased, failing in which the United States would be justified "by every law, human and divine," in wresting it from Spain. This amazing avowal created a tempest of indignation throughout Europe and the northern states, while it was enthusiastically supported in the South. The advice was too audacious to be followed, and so Cuba still remains one of the most turbulent possessions of Spain.

The boundaries between the United States and Mexico were re-adjusted in 1854. The new treaty released the United States from all obligations imposed by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo to defend the Mexican frontier against Indians. For such release our government bound itself to pay ten million dollars.

A reciprocity treaty was negotiated with Great Britain, opening to American citizens all the fisheries of British America, excepting those of Newfoundland, and giving the British a right to share the American fisheries as far as the 36th degree of north latitude. It provided that between the British provinces and the United States commerce in flour, breadstuffs, fish, animals, lumber and numerous other natural productions, should be free. The St. Lawrence River and the Canadian canals were opened to American vessels, and our government agreed to urge upon the respective states the admission of British vessels into their canals on similar terms. One of the wisest clauses of the new treaty was that which provided that all disputes arising about the fisheries should be settled by arbitration. How much better it would be if all differences between nations were so adjusted.

Hardly had this question been settled when another dispute arose between Great Britain and the United States. Many citizens of the latter were anxious to possess

THE WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

that part of the Isthmus of Panama called the Musquito Coast. It was a wild, unhealthful country, peopled by savages, but it offered great advantages for a short route between the two oceans. For the same reason England wanted the land, across which she believed a canal could be easily cut. A railway had long been in course of construction, and the first trains passed over it from Aspinwall to Panama on the 28th of January, 1855.

General William Walker, an audacious adventurer, began his career as a fillibuster in 1853, by leaving San Francisco and making a descent on La Paz in Lower California. In the following spring, with a hundred men, he marched overland to Sonora, where he raised the standard of revolt. His force was scattered and himself made prisoner. He was tried by the authorities in San Francisco and acquitted. He then raised a band of sixty-two and made his way to Central America. There he was joined by a horde of natives, and gained a victory at Rivas, June 29, 1855. He won another victory at Virgin Bay, and soon became so powerful that he was elected president of Nicaragua. Then came an insurrection, which was aided by the Vanderbilt steamship company, whose rights he had invaded, and on the 1st of May, 1857, he was made prisoner. He was soon released, and straightway gathered another band of adventurers in New Orleans, with whom, on the 25th of November, he landed at Punta Arenas, Nicaragua. A few weeks later he was compelled to surrender to Commodore Paulding of the United States navy. He was a prisoner in New York for a time, but being set free the fillibuster reached Central America a third time in June, 1860, at the head of a considerable force. He made a descent on Truxillo, Honduras, but the president of that state, with the help of a British man-of-war, captured the whole band. Walker was tried on the 3d of September and shot.

I must tell you the interesting story of Martin Koszta, which belongs to this period. Koszta was one of the leaders with Louis Kossuth in the Hungarian revolt against Austria in 1849. When the rebellion was put down he fled to Turkey, whence he was demanded by the Austrian government as a refugee and traitor. Turkey refused to give him up, but agreed that he should be sent in exile to some foreign land, never to return. Naturally, Koszta chose the United States as his asylum, and here he took out partial papers of naturalization. In 1854 he went back to Turkey in violation, as it was alleged, of his pledge. Reaching the city of Smyrna, he received a passport from the American consul and went ashore. The Austrian consul learning this, and having no power to arrest him, hired several bandits to seize and throw him into the water of the bay, where a boat was in waiting, which, picking him up, carried him to an Austrian frigate. The American officials immediately demanded his release, but it was refused. Captain Duncan Ingraham, commanding the American sloop of war *St. Louis*, was about to open fire on the Austrian vessel, when it was agreed that Koszta should be put in custody of the French government until his nationality could be decided. The question was then turned over to Baron Hülseman, the Austrian minister at Washington, and William L. Marcy, our secretary of state. The correspondence, in point of ability, was one of the ablest on record, and Marcy triumphed; Koszta was remanded to the United States.

During the administration of Pierce, a secret political party became immensely powerful. The society was formed in New York in 1853, for the purpose of checking foreign influence, especially that of the Irish and of Roman Catholics. The members called themselves "Native Americans," but were generally known as "Know-Nothings," because of their habit when questioned by outsiders regarding their proceedings of saying that they knew nothing. The repeal of the Missouri Compromise in 1854, caused a general break-up of the old political parties, and the know-nothings rapidly increased in numbers, its leaders being found in all sections of the country. In the autumn elections of 1854, the know-nothings carried many states, and for a time whigs and democrats were dumfounded by their success. There were hopes among many of the most patriotic members of the new order that it might become a national union party, strong enough to avert the impending strife between the sections; but the quarrel could not be adjusted by such means. In the autumn elections of 1855, the know-nothings carried the states of New York, Massachusetts, and California, but the democrats were successful in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Indiana. It was not long before the new organization went to pieces.

The time had come for a presidential election. The know-nothings met in Philadelphia on Washington's birthday, and nominated for president and vice-president Millard Fillmore and Andrew Jackson Donelson. On the same day a convention assembled at Pittsburg to complete the organization of the republican party, around whose standard it was meant to rally all citizens opposed to the extension of slavery. It was decided to hold a national convention on the 17th of June, the anniversary of the battle of Bunker Hill.

At the democratic convention in Cincinnati on the 2d of June, President Pierce was brought forward as a candidate, but he had no strength; Douglas had considerable following, but James Buchanan of Pennsylvania received the nomination, John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky being the choice for vice-president.

On the 17th of June the republican convention met in Philadelphia, and put forward John C. Fremont, the explorer, and William L. Dayton of New Jersey, as its candidates. It is worth remembering that at this convention Abraham Lincoln was given one hundred and ten votes for the vice-presidency. In the election Buchanan received 173 electoral votes, Fremont 114, and Fillmore 8.

CHAPTER XXXIII

ADMINISTRATION OF BUCHANAN AND BRECKINRIDGE. 1857–61.

JAMES BUCHANAN, the fifteenth president of the United States, was born of Irish parentage in Pennsylvania, on the 23d of April, 1791. He was admitted to the bar

GENERAL CASS.

in 1812, and two years later was elected to the state legislature. He was a member of Congress in 1820, and showed considerable power as a debater. President Jackson ap-

pointed him minister to Russia in 1831, and, as you will recall, he was President Polk's secretary of state. In 1853 he was our minister to England.

President Buchanan selected his cabinet as follows: Lewis Cass, secretary of state; Howell Cobb, secretary of the treasury; John B. Floyd, secretary of war; Isaac Toucey, secretary of the navy; Jacob Thompson, secretary of the interior; Aaron Brown, postmaster-general, and Jeremiah S. Black, attorney-general.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

You must not forget that at the time President Buchanan assumed office some of the occurrences described in the previous chapter were taking place. The feeling between the North and South on the slavery question was growing in intensity, and the civil war in Kansas was so fierce as to stir the whole nation. Besides all this, the relations with Great Britain were somewhat strained. Sometime before, Mr. Crampton, the British minister to this country, had been dismissed because he engaged in enlisting men on our soil to aid England in her war with Russia. No minister had been sent to

take his place, and there was a good deal of muttering and threats on the part of these two great nations.

You will be surprised to learn by what means this irritation was removed, for a time at least. The British Arctic-discovery ship *Resolute* was abandoned in the ice by its crew in 1854. It was afterward picked up by an American whaler, when drifting a thousand miles from where it had been left in the ice. Our government presented it to Queen Victoria in the month of December, 1856. The words spoken on the occasion by the representatives of the two governments were in such excellent taste that they produced the best effect in both countries. A new British minister shortly arrived in Washington in the person of Lord Napier, and amicable relations were fully restored.

There was a Mormon rebellion during the first year of Buchanan's administration. This abominable sect is a stain upon the civilization of our age. Under the leadership of their founder, Joseph Smith, who pretended to have found the plates upon which the Mormon Bible had been divinely engraved, their first important settlement was made in Jackson, Missouri. You know that, no matter how vile a doctrine is, it will have plenty of believers. So the Mormons rapidly increased until there were about fifteen hundred, and they began to talk and act as though the west was their inheritance. Their practices were so outrageous that the people of Missouri lost all patience and determined to drive them out of the state. As soon as a suitable pretext offered, the militia were called out and the Mormons were compelled to leave.

In the spring of 1839, they crossed the Mississippi into Illinois and laid out a city called Nauvoo, meaning *the beautiful*. They built a fine temple, and converts flocked thither until there were fully ten thousand. They were defiant and passed laws contrary to those of the state. Great excitement followed, in the midst of which Joseph Smith and his brother Hyrum were arrested and lodged in the jail at Carthage. On the 27th of June, 1844, a mob gathered, broke into the jail and killed the Smith brothers. In the following summer the charter of Nauvoo was annulled by the legislature of Illinois.

This discouraged the majority of the Mormons, and, in 1846, they gathered their goods together and started for the far west. Those who stayed in Nauvoo were cannonaded out in September, and they set out to join the others, who crossed the Rocky Mountains, and, reaching the basin of the Great Salt Lake, founded Utah Territory.

These people were industrious and loyal to their authorities, and they founded a community which, in many respects, would have served as a model for the most enterprising pioneers. But their moral corruption was vile to the last degree, and the sect never should have been allowed to take root on American soil.

During the first year of Buchanan's administration an attempt was made to extend our judicial system over the territory. Brigham Young, who succeeded Joseph Smith as the head of the sect, had been allowed to do as he pleased, and had served as governor of the territory. The federal judge sent thither was insulted, and he and the other officials were driven from the territory. The Mormons excused their violence on the ground that the personal character of the United States officials was vicious. This excuse, however, could not be accepted, and Alfred Cumming, superintendent of Indian

affairs on the Upper Missouri, succeeded Brigham Young as governor. Judge Delana Eckels, of Indiana, was made chief justice of the territory, and an army of twenty-five hundred men, under Colonel Albert Sidney Johnston, was sent to Utah to put down all resistance.

Brigham Young and his followers became desperate and made every preparation to overwhelm the United States troops. On the 6th of October they attacked and destroyed most of the supply train of the army. Colonel Johnston was compelled to find winter quarters on Black's Ford, near Fort Bridges.

Meanwhile, Thomas L. Kane, with conciliatory letters from the president, reached Utah, by way of California, in the spring of 1858, and before long brought about an understanding between Governor Cumming and the insurgents. Shortly after, Governor Powell, of Kentucky, and Major McCulloch, of Texas, arrived, bearing a proclamation of pardon from the president to all who would submit to the national authority. The Mormons accepted the offers, and order being fully restored, the United States troops, in May, 1860, were withdrawn from the territory.

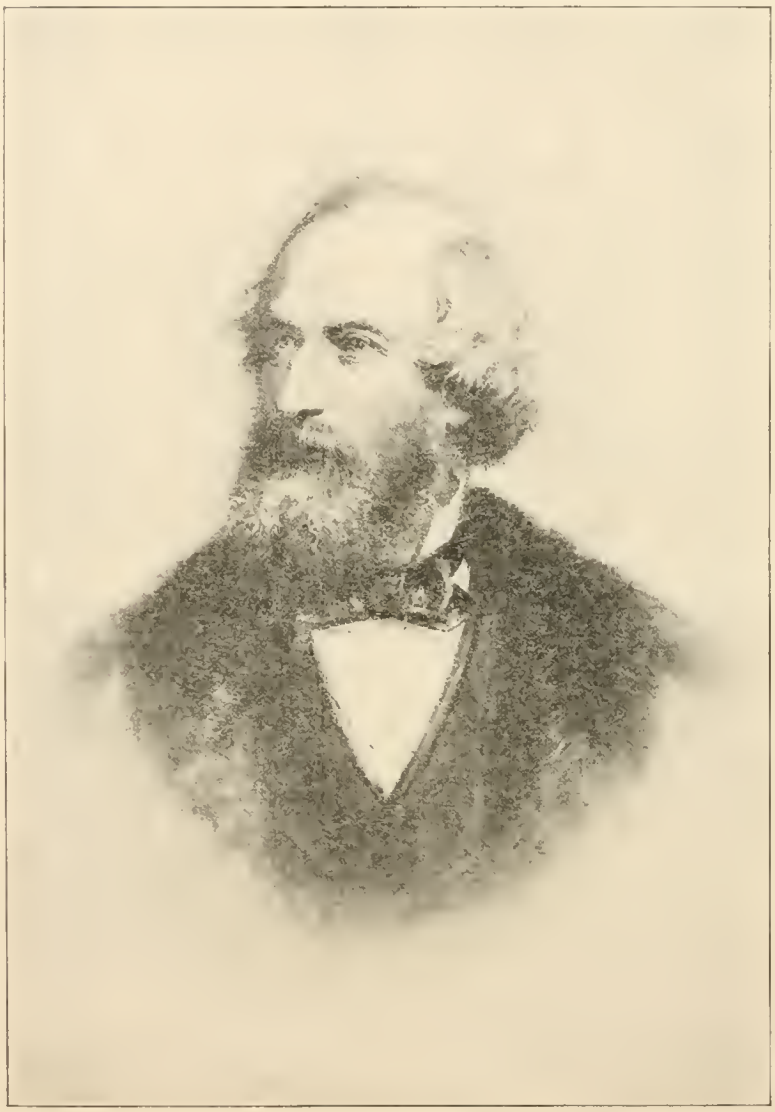
The baleful slave question would not keep down. Dred Scott had been held as a slave by Dr. Emerson, of Missouri, a surgeon in the United States army. The doctor removed to Rock Island, Illinois, and afterward, in 1836, to Fort Snelling, Minnesota. On each occasion he took Dred Scott with him. At Fort Snelling the slave married a negro woman who had been bought by Dr. Emerson, and the couple had two children, after which the slaves were removed to St. Louis and sold. Thereupon, Scott brought suit for his freedom. The case was heard in the courts of Missouri, and in May, 1854, was appealed to the supreme court of the United States. It was not until March, 1857, that a decision was reached. This decision, which was read by Chief Justice Taney, was, in effect, that negroes, whether free or slave, were not citizens of the United States, and that they could not become such by any constitutional process; that under the laws of the United States, a negro could neither sue nor be sued, and that, therefore, the court had no jurisdiction in Dred Scott's case. Furthermore, it was decided that a slave was simply a personal chattel that might be removed from place to place, like any other species of property; and that the constitution gave to every slave-holder the right of removing to, and of passing through any state or territory with his slaves, and of returning whenever he chose to a state where slavery was recognized by law. The inevitable conclusion was that the Missouri Compromise and the compromise of 1850 were unconstitutional and void.

But this startling decision was concurred in by six of the associate justices of the supreme bench (Wayne, Nelson, Grier, Daniel, Campbell and Catron), while two associates—McLean and Curtis—dissented. The decision naturally caused great satisfaction throughout the South and much anger in the North.

The year 1857 was marked by a period of financial distress, similar to that of twenty years before. Hard times prevailed, and the suffering, especially in the large cities, was great. The treasury of the United States, which a short time before was overflowing, was emptied, so that the new government was unable to pay its

officers. It was several years before the country recovered from its monetary distress.

On the 5th of August, 1858, the first telegraphic cable was completed across the Atlantic Ocean. To Cyrus W. Field, a wealthy merchant of New York, was



CYRUS W. FIELD.

largely due the success of this great enterprise. In the previous March, 2,500 miles of wire were made and tested, and the laying of the immense line began at Valentia, Ireland. Two American and two British vessels were employed in the task, but the wire broke twice, and the vessels returned to Plymouth. Another start was made on the 20th of June, but a violent storm stopped operations. The third attempt succeeded. From Valentia to Newfoundland 2,500 miles of wire stretched

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CAPTURE OF JOHN BROWN. (See page 58.)

Drawn by Francis Christy.

along the bottom of the ocean brought the Old and the New World into the closest communication. The following message was dispatched on the evening of August 5th from the directors in England to the directors in America: "Europe and America are united by telegraph; glory to God in the highest; on earth peace, good will toward men."

This message, including the addresses of the senders, occupied thirty-five minutes in transmission. Directly after, Queen Victoria sent a message to President Buchanan, expressing her satisfaction on the completion of an undertaking so likely to promote harmony between the two nations. This message was received complete in Newfoundland sixty-seven minutes after its transmission was begun.

In America the event was celebrated by illuminations, torch-light processions, military parades, salutes of artillery and other expressions of enthusiasm. A brief disappointment, however, followed. The cable was not properly made, and before long, the insulation became faulty; the trouble increased until the 4th of September, when it was found impossible to send a word through the wire. A new company was formed in 1860, and the attempts to lay a cable were renewed. There was much delay and failure, but success was reached in 1866, and now, as you are aware, there is telegraphic communication around the entire globe.

I remember that when preparations were making to lay the Atlantic cable, there was satisfaction expressed because no insect was known to exist that would eat rubber, which was used in coating the wire. It was considered certain, therefore, that the wire would be safe against injury, so long as it lay on the bed of the Atlantic. A noted scientist, however, told these people they were congratulating themselves too soon; that though no known insect would molest India rubber, yet away down in the bottom of the ocean, there were insects waiting for the cable, and were sharpening their appetites against its coming. Sure enough, when it was brought up and examined, it was found to be honey-combed by an insect never heard of before, which seemed to think India rubber the greatest of luxuries.

A new dispute arose with England during the summer of 1859. If you will examine your maps, you will observe the island of Vancouver in the extreme northwest. Near it is a smaller island called San Juan. England desired very much the possession of this island, because it commands the narrow channel between British Columbia and the United States. The incomplete definition of the boundaries in the treaty of 1846 gave ground for a claim against San Juan by each of the nations. Neither was disposed to compromise, and for several years it was jointly occupied by British and American officials. By and by the Americans became impatient, and General Harney, commanding in Washington Territory, sent re-enforcements to the small company stationed on San Juan. The governor of British Columbia protested against the act, and threatened to land his own soldiers if it was continued. General Harney would not recede, and a collision was imminent, when General Scott was sent to the scene. He and the British governor discussed the question temperately, and were not long in reaching an agreement. The American troops, with the exception of a single company, were withdrawn and

orders were issued to stop work on the fortifications begun by General Harney. Then the English squadron which had been sent thither departed, and all became peaceful. But the question of the ownership of San Juan was unsettled and remained so for thirteen years. In 1871, the matter was referred to the Emperor of Germany for arbitration, and he, in October, 1872, decided in favor of the United States. The British evacuated the island on the 22d of the following month.

But the most startling occurrence of Buchanan's administration was in the autumn of 1859. Among the active free-state men in Kansas was John Brown, who lived at Ossawatomie. He and his sons engaged in the struggle with the pro-slavery invaders, and not only struck vigorous blows for freedom, but received vigorous blows in return. Brown was stern, puritanical and brave. The struggles in Kansas filled his soul with such hatred of the system of slavery that he felt himself the chosen agent of the Lord for its extirpation.

His plan was to invade Virginia with a small military force and incite the slaves to insurrection. He was confident that they would gather around him by thousands, overcome their masters, and spread desolation and ruin through the entire South.

Brown fixed upon Harper's Ferry as the starting-point of his wild crusade in the cause of freedom. He collected a band of twenty men in the month of October, and held them ready on the Maryland shore. At ten o'clock on Sunday night, October 16, they crossed the railway bridge over the Potomac, seized the federal armory at Harper's Ferry, stopped the railroad trains, captured several citizens, liberated such slaves as they could find, and held the town for more than twenty-four hours.

Brown threw out pickets, and arrested all persons who ventured abroad. A negro who failed to grasp the situation approached too close to the railroad bridge and was shot down. Telegraphic communication was cut, and arms were sent out to the slaves who were expected to rise. The next morning the citizens attacked the armory; the insurgents fired through the windows and kept them at bay for awhile, but it soon became clear that the place could not be held against the assailants, whose numbers rapidly increased.

Some of Brown's men tried to escape. One of them sprang into the river and swam hard for the other shore. The instant he was seen he was fired upon and wounded. Flinging himself upon a rock he threw up his hand in token of surrender, but the infuriated Virginians would not accept his submission. A rifleman waded to him and blew out his brains.

Brown retreated to the little engine-house in the town, where he stayed with his wounded and prisoners all through Monday and the night following. The fighting had been sharp, and in the houses lay a number of dead and dying. Could the people have laid hands on Brown and his followers they would have torn them to pieces.

Meantime, news had been sent to Washington of the alarming occurrence. At seven o'clock on Tuesday morning, Colonel Robert E. Lee arrived with a force of marines and land troops. The local militia of Virginia had also been called out, and the position of Brown was hopeless. But the stern old man refused to surrender.

The doors of the engine-house were battered in and Brown and his men were over

powered, with the loss of a single man on the side of Colonel Lee. The leader of the insurgents was wounded several times in the final attack; his two sons were killed, and others lay dead about the arsenal.

Brown and his six companions were tried and condemned by the authorities of Virginia, and hanged on the 2nd of December. The conflict continued in Kansas, but the free-soil party gained ground so rapidly as to leave no doubt that slavery would be excluded from the state. The breach between the North and South grew wider each day.

The nineteenth presidential canvass was one of intense excitement. Four candidates entered the field. The republican party put forward Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, on the former platform of opposition to the extension of slavery. The democratic convention assembled in Charleston, in April, 1860. The delegates were so violently divided on the slavery issue that they split into two wings. The southern delegates, determined to prevent the nomination of Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois—the champion of popular sovereignty—withdrew from the convention. The rest, after balloting awhile, adjourned on the 3d of May to Baltimore, where they re-assembled on the 18th of June, and chose Douglas as their standard bearer, with Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia, as candidate for vice-president.

The seceding delegates adjourned first to Richmond, and then to Baltimore, where, on the 28th of June, John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, and Joseph Lane, of Oregon, were nominated for the presidency and vice-presidency. The American party—known as the constitutional unionists—had met in Baltimore on the 9th of May, and nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, and Edward Everett, of Massachusetts.

The election in the autumn of 1860 stirred the country to its remotest corner. Party feeling never ran higher, for every one saw the momentous importance of the conflict. Civil war, which had been postponed so long, was at hand. The South was open in its threats of secession in the event of Lincoln's election, while the blood of the North was at fever heat.

The election took place on the 6th of November, and of three hundred and three electoral votes, Mr. Lincoln received one hundred and eighty, Mr. Breckinridge seventy-two, Mr. Bell thirty-nine, and Mr. Douglas twelve. The electoral votes of all the northern states, except a part of those of New Jersey, went to Mr. Lincoln; Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee gave theirs to Mr. Bell, while most of the southern states supported Mr. Breckinridge. Thus the democratic party, which had controlled the destinies of the country for sixty years (excepting the break in 1840), was routed and driven from the field.